The Nation.

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The Week.

A tea-pot revolution is raging at Panama, but it is nothing to the revolution of sentiment in this country marked by the unanimous report of our Canal Commissioners, transmitted to Congress on Monday, in favor of the Panama route for an Isthmian canal. This is whole diameters away from what passed for even expert opinion three years ago. Within that period, Admiral Walker, who now signs as President of the Commission, publicly expressed his disbelief in the engineering practicability of a canal at Panama at all. And, of course, to the perfervid Morgan, a Panama canal has all along been as wild a project as a railway to Nephelococcygia. His attitude of mingled indignation and pity, when confronting any man who ventured to say that there might, after all, be something in the Panama scheme, was typical of that of press and public until within a year. A newspaper capable of presenting the arguments for the southerly route was held to be *ipso facto* wrong in the head, or else bribed by "French gold" ("British gold" having given out). The canal is not yet dug. Even a bill to authorize it may not be passed at this session of Congress. As to that we make no prophecies. But the one thing certain is that no Nicaraguan bill will become law. The House will be allowed to enjoy a monopoly of folly in having rushed the Hepburn bill through without waiting for the facts. In the Senate (and in the House, too, when the matter comes up there again) there will be the careful deliberation fitting for full-grown men. We shall have common sense, not waving of the arms and shouting, applied to the great question of a waterway for commerce across the Isthmus.

A Pan-American agreement on international arbitration had hardly seemed possible at Mexico, so that the news of a general adoption of the Hague Convention by the American republics comes as a happy surprise. It is agreeable, also, to note that our delegation played an efficient part in soothing jealousies and composing differences. We know, of course, that the Hague Convention is more of an aspiration for peace than a sure means of guaranteeing it, and adhesion to it by the nations of the New World does not mean the end of war here any more than it does in Europe. Still, it is a distinct moral advantage to have this implicit condemnation of war on record so solemnly. It will prevent international disputes from being wantonly embittered. It will provide a tribunal before which an honorable adjustment of controversies may be had. It will increase the presumptions against those who talk of war, and heighten the guilt of those who provoke it. All told, the outcome is most fortunate, and will do much to avert from the Pan-American Congress the reproach of failure, which otherwise might have been levelled at it with considerable justice.

President Roosevelt continues to win the highest praise from respectable citizens in the South for his rejection of unfit candidates for Federal office who are pushed by the Republican machine of their State, and his insistence upon high-class men, even if he has to go outside of his own party to get them. In pursuance of this policy, he has recently nominated two of the most prominent Democrats for two of the most important positions under the United States Government in Mississippi—the district attorney's office and the marshalship. Each appointee is, by common consent, honest, able, and public-spirited, and the reason the President took them was because he could not find men of such character and attainments among the Republicans of their district. Mr. Roosevelt's action receives the warmest commendation from the leading newspapers of the region. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat*, for example, holds that "this determination of Mr. Roosevelt's to subordinate partisanship to patriotism touches the high-water mark of political courage yet recorded in the history of this country," and it adds:

> "We believe we reflect the sentiment of Americans of the Southern States when we say that this unflinching determination of the President's to conduct his Administration in accordance with the primal laws of human living, has won the profound and widespread admiration of his countrymen at the South. If Mr. Roosevelt's Administration as President should end to-day, it would, by its Southern policy alone, be entitled to the lasting gratitude of all Americans."

It is surprising, however, to find the same President who thus unhesitatingly "turns down" the Republican machine in a Southern State seemingly complying with its demand in Pennsylvania. Mr. Roosevelt has announced that the present Collector of Internal Revenue in Philadelphia, P. A. McClain, will be replaced by William McCoach, although Mr. McClain has been a most efficient Collector, and although Mr. McCoach has no other qualifications than subserviency to the Quay machine. According to the New York *Times*, the President justifies this extraordinary performance by the plea that Mr. McClain ought to be put out because he bolted the regular Republican ticket at the recent municipal election, and because officials "must be not only good men, but stalwart Republicans." As thousands of decent Republicans revolted against the outrageous ticket nominated by the Republican machine in Philadelphia last fall, this punishment of one of them astonishes everybody. Mr. McClain himself puts the case very well when he says: "My espousal of the cause of decent municipal government was in direct sympathy with the many utterances of President Roosevelt on the subject; and it does not seem consistent that he can remove an official who agrees with him as to public morals, to take up any representative of a political combination which has been at absolute variance with him as to public morals." Why may Mississippi be granted the best officials who can be secured, even if it be necessary to take Democrats, while only "stalwart" Quay men can hold office in Pennsylvania?

It is semi-officially explained on behalf of the President that the reason for the Collector's removal was not the fact that he had voted a bolting ticket, but that he had taken an active part in the campaign, appearing on the stump upon occasion. This was in defiance of a warning which he had received from Washington, that such activity was incompatible with the Administration's policy as to the civil service. A similar warning was administered to another Federal official, who wanted to speak in favor of the Quay machine—and was heeded by him. We regret that Mr. Roosevelt does not make it plain in every such case as this, by some public statement, what the cause of removal is, but leaves the facts to leak out—or perhaps never come out. We regret, also, that he does not make membership in partisan committees, or active management of party matters, whether as a member of such a committee or as a "leader" who may not be a committeeman, also a bar to retention in the civil service. The collector of the port who runs his ward in favor of the Republican machine without making any public utterance, is quite as great an offender against sound rules of conduct as one who makes a speech against the machine.

The minority of the Coinage Committee of the House have made a report in opposition to Mr. Hill's bill to make gold dollars and silver dollars interchangeable at the Treasury. This is a measure which frankly acknowledges that silver dollars are "fiat money," and therefore ought to be redeemed on demand, like greenbacks and the Treasury notes of 1890. We have taken a long

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time to face that fact, but we have come to it at last, and the question is whether Congress has the logical faculty sufficiently developed to do directly and openly what it does indirectly and covertly. It redeems the silver dollar by taking it as the equivalent of gold at the custom-house and for all other Government dues, and it exercises the option of redeeming it in gold at the Sub-Treasury when presented by private individuals. But it does not allow any holder of silver dollars to demand redemption at the Sub-Treasury as a matter of right. The minority of the Coinage Committee say that it would require a large increase of the gold reserve if the Government should undertake to redeem silver dollars in the way proposed by Mr. Hill's bill. That this is an entirely erroneous assumption must be evident from the fact that the silver dollars are now redeemed, as we have said, at the place where the Government's receipts are taken in. No more gold is needed to redeem them at the front door than at the back door, or vice versa.

The introduction of Mr. Babcock's bill to transfer certain portions of the iron and steel schedule to the free list must confirm the opinion that the tariff question contains the seeds of an "irrepressible conflict." The measure proposes to relieve of duty the heavy products of the furnace, such as iron and steel slabs, beams, girders, and structural iron, and thus necessitates the rearrangement of nearly all the paragraphs of Article C of the Dingley act. Mr. Babcock disclaims, of course, any thought of free trade. His avowed design is simply to safeguard the consumer by removing duties from such articles as are produced more cheaply here than abroad, and consequently do not need protection. The real significance of his bill, however, does not lie in its mere details. Mr. Babcock may say and think what he pleases about his object in suggesting tariff changes, but the fact remains that his action has been taken in spite of the warnings of his political associates and in the face of the protests of protected interests. He may be justified in feeling that his bill will "maintain the theory of protection in accordance with the best Republican traditions," but those who are profiting by the present duties do not care for "best traditions." Traditions are to them, in Pindaric phrase, "only a dream of a shadow." What they want is an opportunity to despoil the consumer. Western Republicans, for whom Mr. Babcock speaks, are coming gradually to feel this truth, and their utter revolt from present conditions is merely a question of time.

The New York *Press* has information from Hartford that the tobacco-growers of New England have broken away from their President, Mr. H. S. Frye, who was willing to concede something to the Cubans in the way of duties on tobacco. The annual convention of the tobacco-growers was held on January 14. Mr. Frye was present and made an address, in which he favored a reduction of the duty on Cuban tobacco wrappers from $1.85 to 35 cents per pound. The convention voted unanimously against this proposal, deposed Mr. Frye as their representative in Washington, and appointed a committee of three to take his place and to work against all concessions to Cuba. This action is in harmony with all that we know about tariff-protected groups, cliques, and coteries. No matter how large or how small they may be, no matter whether the tariff be 10 per cent., or 50 per cent., or 500 per cent., they savagely reject any proposal for a reduction, even when made by their best friends—such friends as President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, Senator Platt (of Connecticut), or Gen. Wood. Senator Platt has been quoted in interviews repeatedly as earnestly favoring a reduction of the tariff on Cuban tobacco, as a matter of duty and humanity, and we shall be much surprised if he allows himself to be swerved from this course by the resolutions of the Hartford convention.

In view of the very interesting present position of the commodity markets and international trade, the statement of our own foreign trade for the full year 1901, just published by the Bureau of Statistics, is worthy of careful study. That the exports would show a decrease from the preceding year was known beforehand; in fact, the amount reported, $12,400,000, is much less than was looked for, six months ago. It was apparent then that exports of manufactures must decline very heavily under the changed conditions of Europe's markets, and, as a matter of fact, the shrinkage from 1900 in this class of trade alone has reached nearly $50,000,000. What has offset most of this large decline is the growth of our agricultural exports. Contrary to all expectations in the earlier portion of the year, the shipment of these commodities has run $30,000,000 beyond 1900, and has, in fact, surpassed all other years, not excepting the "European famine year," 1898. Considering that we have hardly been exporting corn at all since August, this is a very notable showing. Furthermore, even in the matter of manufactured goods, it should be remembered that in our trade, as in England's, a fall in prices makes the decrease in exports look more formidable than the figures of quantities would warrant. It may be added that fully one-half of the decrease in manufactured exports has been in copper ingots, where a trade combination tried this year to stand in the way of natural laws. That the merchandise import trade of 1901 should show a heavy increase was to have been expected. As a matter of fact, it has increased continuously since 1896, with the single exception of the year of the Spanish war. Last year's full showing perhaps attracts the more attention from the fact that the total imports run for the first time beyond the huge figures of 1892. For 1901, the import trade was $50,000,000 beyond this previous high record. It would appear, moreover, from such classified figures as have been published for 1901 that the increase is not, as a rule, in competitive articles of commerce.

"If you should hear of a few Filipinos more or less being *put out of the way*, don't grow too *sentimental* over it." Such is the language which Gen. Chaffee, according to Mr. Joseph Ohl, addressed to that correspondent of the Atlanta *Constitution* after the massacre in Samar. Mr. Ohl writes that it might be "unfair to Gen. Chaffee for me to put in quotation marks all he said to me that day," but he does put in quotation marks the words we have quoted. The incident may properly be referred to Senator Hoar's special committee of inquiry. Representative John Wesley Gaines of Tennessee, who visited the Philippine Islands last summer, made his first statement as to his observations in a recent address before the students of Vanderbilt University. He learned in Manila that 75,000 translations of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution had been circulated among the Filipinos by Gen. MacArthur. "What do you think of circulating that d——— incendiary document, sir?" he was asked by an army officer. Mr. Gaines was not afraid to say that he had heard of many atrocities committed by American troops, and among other things had learned of the beheading of three American deserters as soon as they were captured by their former comrades, without hearing or trial. The Maccabebes in the employ of the American army Mr. Gaines denounced as the scum of the islands, traitors to their cause, thieves by nature and by tradition, who are hated by the Filipinos as irreclaimable cowards and robbers.

Like other observers, Mr. Gaines estimated that not less than from thirty to sixty thousand troops must be kept permanently in the islands. He was not, however, as much impressed with the imminent danger of a fresh outbreak as are so many officers now in the interior of Luzon. On this point the correspondent of the Atlanta *Constitution* has very decided views. He thinks that there is serious danger in arming Filipinos and teaching them the use of rifles. Disclaiming all purpose of posing as an alarmist, Mr. Ohl says of the army officers he has met:

"The most optimistic of them endorse the general view that, while the Filipinos

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have bowed their heads to the storm, it is with them simply a question whether the time and the opportunity will ever come for another effort to take up arms in another fight for their freedom and independence, which is their greatest desire. Taken as a race, they may not have very definite ideas of freedom and independence; but, as a race, they resent the assumed superiority of the white man."

Retiring Governors, as well as incoming Executives, are expected to address the Legislature of Iowa when one goes out and a new man comes in. Gov. Shaw draws an attractive picture of the condition of the commonwealth which he has supervised during the past four years—the people prosperous, crime decreasing, although population is increasing, fewer persons sent to the penitentiary last year than in any other save one for a quarter of a century, exceptionally cordial relations between capital and labor, few deeds of violence, and no case of lynch law for more than a decade. But there is one bad blot upon the record. Sixty thousand persons are employed in factories, and the "sanitary condition of many factories is well-nigh alarming," while investigations by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that a large number of children, some as young as ten years of age, are employed, "and the faces of many of them tell a sad story of overwork and over-hours." Shocking stories as to such abuse of young children have come from manufacturing establishments in some Southern States, but it is a disagreeable surprise to find the scandalous system thriving in so progressive a commonwealth as Iowa. It speaks well for the incoming Secretary of the Treasury that he would not allow a natural desire to felicitate himself and the State upon the general condition of affairs to prevent his exposure of this reproach and his demand for reform.

Washington is likely to present the spectacle, not very common in any country, of a city made over in accordance with a comprehensive scheme. The beautiful plan of L'Enfant has been in part sacrificed through the carelessness of his successors, so that the new work must be to some extent one of restoration. What is especially interesting is the project for a great outlying park on the Potomac flats, with full facilities for boating and bathing; and that for fountains in abundance, to temper the heat of the summer months. These plans are so accurately drawn that the entire project is presented to the eye in two models publicly exhibited, one representing the city as it is, the other the city as the Burnham Commission thinks it should be. It is distinctive of this movement for beautifying the capital city that it does not proceed haphazard—a park here, a drive there—but that, once for all, a competent commission of architects, landscape artists, and engineers have planned splendidly, as L'Enfant did before them, for a long future. Of course, these things are easier in Washington, where national pride is available for civic purposes, than they are elsewhere. But the notable success of Boston with the new park system might well encourage the Mayor of New York, when the time is ripe for such a movement, to urge a comprehensive plan for the permanent beautifying of this city.

The speech from the throne on Thursday naturally gave little idea of the serious problems which confront the British Parliament in the present session, and the debates in the two houses were hardly more illuminating. It was made clear at least that the Government is fully committed to the policy of thorough in South Africa, and that there is no disposition to negotiate with the Boers. Lord Rosebery found this attitude of the Government reprehensible, and the speech from the throne "jejune." But his own advocacy of "a passive policy of peace" is hardly calculated to arouse enthusiasm, for it is difficult to see how any "wise passiveness" on Mr. Chamberlain's part is likely to win over De Wet and Botha. The really serious thought of all who looked beneath the brilliant spectacle of the opening must have been upon the grave questions of internal policy with which the present Parliament must deal. The members of Salisbury's big, brute majority are a year further from the "khaki campaign"—a year more worried with the endless burden of the war. Meanwhile the time has come to settle with domestic matters which have fallen into arrear.

For the present session the most exalted Imperialists must become Little Englanders, and deal with such homely things as the Budget, education, and Irish land tenure. Any one of these will give Mr. Balfour trouble enough in the Commons, and he may not find the closure so handy a weapon as it was last year. Sir Robert Giffen, in the London *Times*, estimates the deficiency in the April Budget, now preparing, at something more than ten millions of pounds, and sees no prospect of the immediate reduction of the so-called "extraordinary" war expenditures. The country will respond, must respond, as manfully to Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's second challenge to pay the piper as it did to his first; but it will be likely to ask this time, "How long?"—a question which the Government cannot for ever wave aside as an impertinence. The educational question is hardly less pressing. The Government last August practically accepted defeat on its comprehensive plan, and passed a temporary measure, which restricted the powers of the school boards strictly to elementary education. This was represented by the Liberals as primarily an attack on the boards and on the night schools and continuation schools for children beyond the statutory age, which had grown up under their charge. Such it has proved to be, in effect, if not in intention. Dr. MacNamara has shown in the London *Daily News* that the enrolments in the board schools for the year 1901-2 will probably show a falling off of 100,000 pupils. Under the discredit of last summer's fiasco, the Government this session must formulate a comprehensive scheme for secondary education—a most delicate task, for which it has shown neither aptitude nor good-will. The Liberal opposition will be unsparing at this point. Finally, the Irish Land-Purchase Bill will be a most contentious measure. No Parliament yet has come off handsomely in the matter of Irish legislation, and the present khaki majority will hardly prove an exception to the rule.

Lord Cranborne's statement in the House of Commons on Monday is absolutely conclusive on the subject of the friendly service which England rendered the United States on the eve of the Spanish war. What has been widely believed and privately asserted is now for the first time officially verified. There were, according to the deliberate statement of the British Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, proposals submitted to England to join other Powers in "putting pressure on the Government of the United States," but with them "his Majesty's Government declined to associate itself." No documents were laid on the table by Lord Cranborne, but none were needed. Time enough to produce them when some foreign chancellery denies their existence. It is safe to say that none will, irritating as it must be to some of them to see England making herself known as the Power which prevented a European coalition against the United States. This great service was what President McKinley referred to when he said in Washington to the correspondent of the London *Times*, that this country would "never forget" what Great Britain had done in the crisis of the Spanish war. There may be a certain calculated timeliness in the revelation of the truth by the English Foreign Office. Lord Cranborne may have been squinting at a certain effusiveness of friendship for America visible just now across the Channel, having for occasion the launching of a schooner yacht in these waters for the Emperor, under the eye of his brother, Prince Henry, with the assistance, by request, of the President's daughter. Never mind that; the fact is officially established that it was England who was our best friend in a national emergency, and it should, for many long years to come, quiet, for very shame, the raging of our Anglophobes.

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A WORKING PLAN FOR THE PHILIPPINES.

Once more the "settled" Philippine question is to be torn open by a debate in the Senate. It is expected to run on for a month or more; but at its very beginning there comes gratifying evidence that the Democratic Senators are recovering their grasp and developing something like the instinct of political leadership. The minority report of the Philippines Committee, marking out the line of Democratic opposition and contention, is drawn with great shrewdness and with real statesmanlike ability. It is eminently practical, offering a programme which could at once be put into execution, and it goes with directness to the heart of existing difficulties. It is constructive legislation, in the best sense of the word, since it proposes to bring healing measures and a far-sighted plan to bear where three years of dogged fighting have led only to misery, instability, and, as Gen. Chaffee confesses, a whole people sullenly and inveterately hostile. The problem is one for solution by statesmen, not by soldiers, and the Democratic Senators bring forward the necessary measure.

With true political skill they have seized on the pending bill for a Philippine tariff in order to make it the vehicle for a sound policy covering the whole vexed question. If the Philippines are not to be permanently a part of American territory, why go to work at this time to levy a special tariff on Philippine goods? The final status of the islands is really the previous question. To that the minority report addresses itself, and it does so in a series of propositions so weighty and strategic that we reprint them entire:

"(1.) That the United States relinquish all claim to sovereignty over the Philippines, 'subject to the provisions hereinafter set forth.'

"(2.) That from and after the passage of this act the Philippine Islands shall be foreign territory, and all goods entering the United States therefrom shall be subject to the same duties, customs, and imposts as are now or may be hereafter prescribed by law for goods entered from other foreign countries; provided, that during the temporary occupation of the islands all trade between them and the United States shall be free.

"(3.) That the United States shall continue to occupy the archipelago until the Filipinos have formed for themselves a stable government, and until sufficient guarantees have been obtained for the performance of our treaty obligations with Spain, and for the safety of those inhabitants who have adhered to the United States.

"(4.) That as soon as these results have been accomplished, it is declared to be the purpose of the United States to withdraw from the Philippines, and leave the government, control, and sovereignty thereof to the inhabitants, retaining only such military, naval, and coaling stations as may be designated by the Government of the United States."

It will be admitted by any open mind that the ordinary objections urged against withdrawal from the Philippines do not lie against this plan. There is nothing doctrinaire about it. We are to leave the islands because it is for the best interest of all concerned that we should. It is simply the every-day statesmanship of true self-interest that is recommended. Nor is there to be anything hurried or undignified in the process. All our international obligations are to be duly discharged. Our commercial interests are to be properly safeguarded. Without fluster or hysteria, the nation is calmly to announce to the Filipinos and the world the ultimate policy respecting the islands which justice and expediency alike impel it to embrace. This is both good sense and good tactics. The Republican Senators will find this Democratic line of battle exceedingly formidable. It will serve not only for the immediate debate, but for a concentration of sentiment and of forces throughout the country. Both for its own excellence and for the evidence it gives that the breath of life is once more in the Democratic Opposition, we can but welcome it.

By a striking coincidence, this minority report was published on almost the same day that the views of a well-known European publicist on the same subject reached this country. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 1, Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu has an article on "The United States as a Colonial Power." It is not an ill-natured or unsympathetic review of the way in which we got into our present predicament. M. Beaulieu sees a certain moral inconsistency between the professions with which we went to war, and the spoils with which we emerged; he even says that the Platt Amendment, forced upon the Cubans, was a "masterpiece of perfidy"; yet he assumes no Pharisaic air in consequence, for, "alas!" he writes, "the United States is not the only nation which has thus stultified itself, and the countries which are entitled to cast a stone at it are rare indeed." This writer, in fact, goes a good way with our Imperialists. He speaks of our expansion and the war with Spain as "inevitable," and justifies much that we have done in the past three years. To his mind, most of it goes hand in hand with our commercial enlargement.

Yet this keen and friendly critic puts his finger on the most glaring mistake which we made—the annexation of the Philippines. This, in the opinion of M. Beaulieu, is the stone of stumbling of American expansion. For in the Philippines we have, what we have in no other of our acquisitions, a race unassimilable and indomitable, a vast drain on our national resources with no return, and a constant threat of embroilment, with a manifest weakness in case of war. And the inference which this intelligent foreign observer draws is almost precisely the same as the plan put forward in the minority report of the Senate committee. Two or three ports in the Philippines, he maintains, would meet the full commercial needs of this country in the China seas. From the rest, withdrawal is the true policy; and M. Beaulieu is certain that, if President Roosevelt is not led to adopt it, it will be forced, sooner or later, upon his successors, "for the greatest good of the United States."

FOR A PHILIPPINE INQUIRY.

Senator Hoar's resolution calling for a select committee to inquire into the war in the Philippines is strictly in line with precedent. Whenever there has been some great scandal, or some important question wrapped in fog and mystery, the practice of Congress has been to name a special committee to investigate and report. Dozens of cases could be cited. Senator Lodge, it is true, plaintively protested that it would be a grave "reflection" upon the regular Philippine Committee, of which he is chairman, to go outside of it for investigators, and the resolution was accordingly referred to that committee. But everybody knows that a standing committee seems often particularly designed to smother, instead of expedite, investigation. Its pigeon-holes are enormous. Its waste-basket is gigantic. Long accustomed, and rightly accustomed, to prevent futile questions from passing out of its hands to vex Congress, its fixed habit is that of suppression and concealment. What we want in the Philippine business is free inquiry and full publication; and Senator Hoar is correct in maintaining that it is only through a special committee that we shall get them.

Such an open and fearless probing into the facts is needed, for one thing, to quicken the conscience of the country. We have grown callous to a state of things which, four years ago, would have filled the land with indignation. Suppose a public man had ventured, early in 1898, to propose subjugating the Filipinos with an army of 50,000 men, what would have been his fate? Universal public execration. But what would have seemed in advance a horrible thing, ought not to appear a natural and proper course simply because we are now pursuing it. The only reason it does so appear to many worthy people is that their sensations have grown dull on this subject. Their consciousness does not respond any longer to the words which once would have stirred its depths. The thing has become an "old story." People say they are "tired" of hearing about the Philippines. So we say a fresh inquiry is highly desirable to rouse Americans from the lethargy of jaded senses into which they are tempted to fall, as respects this matter of vital concern to the nation. We need to have the old facts set forth with new vividness; the truth dragged out from behind the conflicting official reports where it is hidden; and the national mind once more challenged

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by the sharp questions, "What are we doing in the Philippines? How long are we going to stay there? What is the best way to withdraw, and save our honor and our principles?"

The inquiry should surely cover, and cover fully, the points which Senator Hoar mentioned in his speech of honest indignation on January 14. He says that he has seen with his own eyes a document, signed by Gen. Anderson, who was in command of our troops in the Philippines before Gen. Merritt arrived, in which that officer explicitly states that he promised the Filipinos their independence. This has been hinted at before, but never so explicitly asserted. Mr. Hoar affirms that Gen. Anderson admits "twice over his signature" that such a promise was made. Now this is a new and most material fact. The country is entitled to know all about it. Let no one try to slip out of it by saying that Gen. Anderson's pledge of independence was unauthorized, and therefore not binding. This is not a dispute about technicalities. The question is one of national attitude and national good faith. Besides, it has been bellowed from a thousand stumps that no such promise was ever made by any officer of the United States. Senator Hoar now declares that he has seen written proof (presumably in the War Department) that it was made. Of course, our Government was not bound by the unauthorized act of Gen. Anderson, but it was bound not to bury the truth in its archives. If a special committee is necessary to bring it out, by all means let us have it.

This relates to past events nearly touching our national honor, but there are things going on to-day in the Philippines which, as Senator Hoar says, are "a foul blot on the flag which we all love." He speaks of conversations which he has had with "brave soldiers and officers of high rank," who have told him of atrocities committed in the Philippines in the name of the United States. On those things, too, the light should be turned. These military witnesses should be allowed to declare from the housetops what they now dare only to whisper in the ears of Senators. They should be called before a committee in open session, and, under guarantee of complete immunity for any testimony they may give, should be asked to tell the whole country the whole truth. At present they are under the kind of terrorism which necessarily rests upon men in the military service. With this goes the inevitable official optimism which insists upon everything in the Philippines being for the best possible under the best of possible governments. Secretary Root, for example, denies that there is any friction between the civil and military governments; yet every one who has a correspondent in the archipelago, every one who talks frankly with returned agents or officers, every one who perceives the conflict between Gen. Chaffee's reports and Gov. Taft's, knows that there is friction, sometimes amounting to bitter animosity. Into this also there should be investigation, searching and unconcealed.

We must not pooh-pooh all this aside as something which does not concern us. Our national character is implicated. We cannot let ourselves be branded as a set of hypocrites. Our press and public have been crying out against the barbarities of the war in South Africa; how do we like to have Englishmen defend their cruelties by citing our own? There is an article in the last *Fortnightly* with this suggestive and, to us, humiliating title: "The Struggle in the Philippines: A Parallel to the South African War." If there is such a parallel, we ought to know it. The details should be set forth in the light of day. Such military successes and surrenders in the Philippines as are daily reported do not go to the core of the matter. Of course, we can beat down the scattered bands of insurgents when we catch them, but are there barbarities in our mode of warfare; is the cruellest torture used even by our police; is the whole Filipino people, as Gen. Chaffee asserts, filled with a settled hostility against its American rulers, and sleeplessly plotting to undo their work? These are the vital questions, and a speedy, clear, and conclusive answer to them should be given. In bringing up the whole subject Senator Hoar has done his duty as a patriot. Who of us can afford to be less strenuous than he in demanding that the truth, and the whole truth, be made known?

CONSOLIDATING THE ARMY SUPPLY DEPARTMENTS.

The announcement that Secretary Root is about to recommend to Congress the consolidation of the army supply departments, foreshadows a most radical and desirable military reform. It is the result of the Secretary's conviction, as stated in his annual report, that "the division of the supply departments into separate bodies, acting independently of each other, and each responsible only to a civilian Secretary of War, is a bad arrangement, resulting often in confusion, in conflict, in unnecessary expenditure of money, in increase of paper work, and making it difficult to fix responsibility."

With characteristic open-mindedness and thoroughness, Secretary Root thus put his finger upon one of the greatest evils in the army organization, the weakness which was probably responsible for more suffering, extravagance, and inefficiency during the war with Spain than any other. No other Secretary of War has ever come out so boldly against the staff departments, which, being firmly intrenched in Washington, have always wielded more political influence than all the rest of the army. Before Secretary Root's time, every effort to modernize this part of the service failed ignominiously, so that to the staff officers' distorted vision the line seemed finally to exist for the staff, instead of the staff's existing to fill the wants of the line. Within a very short time after taking office, Mr. Root realized the disproportion in the relations of the two parts of the army, and the evils which resulted. His first reform, the abolition of permanent appointments to the staff departments, was put on the statute-book February 2, 1901, when the Army Reorganization Bill was passed, and, from this time on, only temporary appointments are to be made. Each officer now transferred will serve four years in some department, and then be sent back to serve a stated term with his regiment before again being detailed to staff duty. Under the old system the officers appointed to the staff were chosen because of their political influence, and, once transferred, they lost all touch with the men in the field and their needs. Thus the Ordnance Corps, which sent the cavalry into the Santiago campaign with inferior pistols, has not yet, after four years, decided upon a modern weapon. As its officers never have to use the pistols, they do not see any reason for hurrying their deliberations. That the state of affairs thus illustrated will pass away as soon as the transfer system, now only begun, becomes the rule in all departments, is the belief not only of Mr. Root, but of all the progressive officers in the service.

The Secretary has not, however, been content with this memorable reform. He has seen, as have the younger officers for ten or fifteen years past, that the organization of the supply departments is wholly antiquated, and fully seventy-five years behind the times. In their functions, the Quartermaster's and Commissary Departments may be properly compared with a modern business enterprise. But what commercial organization could have avoided bankruptcy had it divided the different parts of its business among sets of clerks, each with a separate head, each set and each head extremely jealous of the other, and each refusing to communicate with the other except through lengthy and formal documents? Yet this is a fair statement of the relations of the staff departments with each other, which led to such shocking and frequently disgraceful results in 1898. To make matters worse, the division of duties has been absurd to a degree. To give the most striking instance, the Quartermaster's Department has had to supply the tables and chairs of the men's mess-rooms, the Ordnance Department the knives, forks, and spoons, the Subsistence Department the food, while the cooks have received their wages from the Pay Department. But while the Sub-

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sistence officers have been permitted to buy food for the men, they have never been intrusted with the duty of purchasing food for the animals. It constantly happens that a quartermaster at a post may be disbursing thousands of dollars monthly for new buildings or roads, repairs, forage, or what not, and yet he is never allowed to pay the troops. For this purpose an officer of an entirely different department must travel perhaps a thousand miles. In the navy of the United States one officer, the paymaster of a ship, has long performed all the functions which are now divided among three or four army departments.

It is plain that simplicity, efficiency, economy, and common sense have long demanded the change which Secretary Root urges. As disclosed thus far, his plan is to have one large supply department, in place of the Quartermaster's, the Subsistence, and the Pay Corps. This is to have a head with the rank of major-general, and will comprise four divisions, dealing with subsistence, finance, transportation, and construction, each in charge of a brigadier-general. Whether this is the most practical and desirable division of the duties of the new department, time alone will show, but that it is along the right lines is undeniable. There will in some quarters be criticism of the number of generals proposed. On the other hand, it will be said that more than one high position must be held out as inducements to men to qualify for this line of service. Secretary Root believes that many officers must be attracted to this kind of work, in order that there may be many qualified to undertake the staff duties with volunteer armies in the event of war. He would make impossible hereafter that resort to "sons of fathers" and politicians which marked the McKinley régime in 1898, with the excuse that there were no others better qualified.

In any event Secretary Root's plan assures prompt coöperation between the divisions which should work with full knowledge of each other's plans and purposes. Under it there should be an end to the tiresome delays in securing supplies, and the mistakes so frequently made in 1898 of shipping food to one point and other supplies to an entirely different place. Congress should not fail to act upon Secretary Root's measure at an early date, if for no other reason than that it will inevitably save large sums for the Government. Like Secretary Root's other reforms, this one, if introduced, will make his administration of the War Department memorable in army history.

THE CASE OF MR. SCHWAB.

The case of Mr. Schwab of the United States Steel Company is in many respects a peculiar one. It seems certain that, during his vacation in Southern France, he visited Monte Carlo, played the tables recklessly, was for a moment the hero of the gamblers and pleasure-seekers of that notorious resort—in short, conducted himself like a weak man in the first wantonness of newly acquired power to spend. Despite a qualified and unsatisfactory denial of "sensational" gambling, one must believe that the great ironmaster behaved rather worse than the average wealthy man of little principle would have done.

It is precisely because Mr. Schwab is not the average wealthy man that his alleged actions have called forth bitter and well-deserved rebukes from many quarters. Mr. Schwab's wealth has not been lightly won and precariously amassed as the result of speculative operations, but it constitutes the just reward of rare special ability in a difficult manufacturing enterprise. His experience has been of the kind that usually sobers a man and hardens his moral fibre, and it is painful to feel that one who represents a well-earned success, who controls the lot of hundreds of thousands of laborers, and who conserves the interests of an army of investors, should be capable of playing the part of a gilded youth in the first riotous enjoyment of his patrimony, or that of a stock-jobber of the Jim Fisk or the Barney Barnato type. This is not the sort of man to be in a position of great trust and of vast financial responsibility.

To account for the case of Mr. Schwab is not difficult. It falls under the head of the demoralizing effect of money earned more rapidly than its wise spending has been learned. Here the social satirist might be tempted to write a bitter chapter on the subject of Deferred Wild Oats, and a very sordid chapter it would be—of dissipation after dissipation has lost the glamour of hot blood and high spirits, and of debauchery which borrows no grace of Epicurean theory. Where many a man who has become suddenly rich has fallen into this slough, one would willingly believe that Mr. Schwab has merely exhibited the recklessness which makes such a fall possible. In either case his example is deplorable.

Our millionaires, and particularly the self-made men among them, embody the ideal of the average American young man. Mr. Schwab's splendid ability is to a host of American boys and young men a shining object of emulation. In like manner his ability to fling down on the roulette table single stakes which exceed the year's wages of the average ambitious youth, is a challenge to the imagination of many a struggling young man, and a direct encouragement of many a boy whose first small savings are already drifting into the policy-shop or the pool-room. Such an example is doubly unpleasing from a man who had begun to wield large influence as a leader of public opinion—advising parents against the time-wasting and spendthrift influences of college education, and speaking sober economic truth to the leaders of organized labor. Surely he presents an unedifying example of the education which he advocates in preference to that of the college, and belies that sturdy training as a laborer of which he is justly proud. In short, the wealth which is earned imposes a kind of special obligation, like that of gentle birth. The self-made man has escaped the enervating influences of a too easy course, and has acquired an intimate knowledge of men and of affairs which should create in him a finer and truer sense of social obligation than is often felt by the man who is born wealthy, and therefore should make his use of wealth doubly scrupulous.

Far more surprising than Mr. Schwab's failure to grasp this point of personal honor, but hardly less regrettable, is the fact that he vainly imagined that the head of a great corporation could permit himself the irregularities which are condoned in obscurer men. Many who palliate the actual offence will think this an error in judgment which disqualifies him from holding his high position. For better or for worse, the great leaders of finance are the princes of to-day—our *noblesse*. Their every movement is reported, their pleasure trips are royal progresses. This, we believe, is unfortunate, alike for the millionaires and for the public—it inculcates a false sense of values; but this is the case before us. And for the "iron king" or the "copper king" there is no convenient incognito, such as the royalty of blood may affect—no transparent disguise which all may penetrate but will respect. Towards the head of a billion-dollar company the eyes of a multitude are directed. The character and the judgment of its President are the chief guarantee that the smallest investor is secured in his interests. We no longer tolerate in our public officials moral delinquencies which become openly scandalous, and such offences in the presidents of banks and great stock companies seriously impair the credit of their respective institutions. Against this wholly just sentiment Mr. Schwab has offended grievously. Many who waive the broader moral issue will feel that in the gross forgetfulness of his great responsibility, and in the readiness to accept for the President of the United States Steel Company those facile moral standards which might serve for the mere man of wealth, lies the sum of his offending. We regret profoundly that so typical an example of great wealth and high position fairly earned should symbolize also the profligate misuse of wealth—that a character which we have observed in many admirable aspects should so signally fail in the point of honor which great responsibility imposes.

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THE NAPLES TAMMANY OVERTHROW.

ROME, December, 1901.

When the royal decree of November 8, 1900, instituting a commission of inquiry into all the acts of the municipal administrations of the city of Naples appeared, we felt a certain incredulity as to the result, remembering the innumerable *inchieste* that have been ordained and completed during the forty years that have elapsed since Garibaldi entered, inaugurating the Unity of Italy under the house of Savoy, and the Bourbons fled, leaving him victor all along the line. Something has resulted from the numerous public and private "inquiries" made in the island of Sicily; but in Naples, from the hour when Garibaldi quitted the city for Caprera, and the Moderates, taking possession, inaugurated their partisan reign, to their downfall in 1876 and the instalment of their successors, the Left, alias Progressists, Liberals, Reformers—again, to the overthrow of these, and the dictatorship of Depretis-Crispi, of Crispi alone—again, through the successive reigns of Rudini-Nicotera, of the "law by decree" ministry with the horrors of 1898—up to last September things had gone from bad to worse, and King Camorra, from a pretender to an uncrowned sovereign, had continued his triumphal career until, at the death of Humbert, he was the uncontested, uncontestable, inviolable monarch of Naples and the provinces.

Your readers are not unacquainted with the performances, character, and attributes of King Camorra. They have read Villari's descriptions, which have grown more and more vivid and emphatic, from his first Southern Letters to his pictures of the misery and ignorance of the plebs, the corruption, oppression, and general infamy of the ruling and wealthy classes, culminating in the photographs of the "disembowelment" of Naples, the robbery of the 100 millions destined for the housing of the poor—seized by the municipal authorities and their clients for themselves with connivance of the provincial authorities and sanction of the successive governments at Rome; or, if not direct sanction, non-interference, in order to retain the votes of the electors who seconded their choice of candidates. Nor has your present correspondent failed to expose the situation, which could not be exaggerated, either in itself or in its fatal consequences to the entire life of Italy, even as cancer taints the whole system, poisoning its very heart's blood. Cavour, who cannot be justified for the means which he employed to oust the entire party of action which had freed Naples from the Bourbon—in order to install the stanch supporters of his policy, the champions of the House of Savoy—was fully aware of the crucial problem involved in the annexation of the southern provinces, especially of the Neapolitan, as affecting the moral unity of the new kingdom. In the years that elapsed between 1793 and 1860—if we except a brief moment at the commencement of the reign of Ferdinand—the one aim of the Bourbons was to exterminate all the intelligent, patriotic citizens by death on the scaffold. Between the 31st of October and the 11th of November, 1793, one hundred and twenty physicians, professors of the university, millitary and naval officers, and fifteen priests, were hung in the market-place; thousands were imprisoned and banished, their property sequestrated, their families reduced to misery. The executions and murders that took place during the reign of terror, 1799-1800, can never be enumerated, as all the documents of the famous Giunta were burnt by order of the King, on his restoration. The same system was continued in 1821, in 1830, and again in 1849. At the same time, every effort was made to maintain the plebs in a state of ignorance, superstition, and corruption.

Garibaldi and his Secretary-General, Dr. Agostino Bertani, at once recognized the dangerous condition of the masses steeped in misery, vice, and corruption. They set to work to reorganize the police, which the Bourbons had used solely in order to persecute the patriots and to enlist in their service the camorrists and malefactors. Garibaldi abolished the secret-service fund, established twelve infant schools in the twelve quarters of the city; a military college for the sons of the poor; allotted to the communes the product of the *octroi;* commenced the abolition of lotteries, and introduced the system of saving banks; decreed the sequestration of ecclesiastical property. To the short term of Garibaldian administration also belongs the first attempt at sanitation and the disembowelment of Naples. Cavour, who had made a special study of Naples as early as 1847, and then wrote that "no province of the peninsula had suffered equally, during centuries of domination by foreigners, such excessive feudal oppression, undergone such bloody revolutions, or such sanguinary oppression," at once recognized the importance of thorough reorganization of the entire system of government, administrative, educative, moral, and material. In a memorable treatise on Italian railroads, he dwelt upon the necessity of extending the Neapolitan lines to the toe and heel of the Southern provinces, and did his utmost to encourage the influx of Italian and foreign capital, regarding the population, with all its ignorance and corruption, as frugal and naturally intelligent, well suited to form an active industrial community. He sent one of his ablest helpers, Vittorio Sacchi, to study the finances of the city and provinces. As secretary to the first Lieutenant-General, the Prince of Carignano, he sent Costantino Nigra, with instructions to found and encourage various industries. "If," he wrote, "we do not place the various provinces of Italy, and the southern ones especially, in a position to increase their production, we shall encounter a sad future. Taxes must be increased, but first we must increase the contributive capacity of the population by stimulating production and the formation of wealth." So complicated did the state of Naples appear to Cavour that he did not hesitate to admit the possible necessity of special administrative measures to be voted by Parliament, even as Mazzini also counselled special administration for the islands. Up to the last moment of his life the Neapolitan problem occupied Cavour's thoughts. "I am grieved by the situation of Naples," he wrote, "but neither surprised nor discouraged. People cannot be regenerated in a week, nor can political difficulties be overcome by gymnastics. The regeneration of Naples depends chiefly on the strength and the honesty of the Government. We must prepare to resist all pressure, all political influence, at the cost of exposing the Ministry to extreme unpopularity." But June, 1861, deprived Italy of the great statesman, and his successors managed in a very short space of time to efface every trace of Garibaldi's efforts and of Cavour's good intentions.

Your experience of Tammany Hall proceedings can give but a faint idea of the state of Naples at the death of King Humbert; and that his son and successor was fully aware of the depths of degradation to which his native city was reduced, is a fact well known among his intimates, although he never, during his father's life, interfered, directly or indirectly, with political or administrative affairs. His cordial welcome to Zanardelli (who, throughout his entire career, has not a blot on his moral character, and who, during his brief months of power under Kings Vittorio and Humbert, had struck the note of morality in a key quite too high for the ears of most of his colleagues) was not unconnected with his desire to see a moral régime introduced and supported in the South. The deepest depths of corruption had meanwhile been reached in every department of municipal and, as we shall soon see, provincial administration, while the wholesale plundering of the charitable institutions had reached a point which, if surpassed, would leave nothing more even for the plunderers. *La Propaganda,* a newspaper conducted chiefly by young Socialists, attacked on front, rear, and flank the communal administration personified in the Syndic Summonte, strongly supported by the now ex-Deputy Casale. Many such attacks had been made by honest newspapers, Moderate, Liberal, and Clerical, but the results had been zero, the Government either interfering or ignoring the questions, so that the authors of the attacks have generally undergone heavy sentences for libel, defamation, calumny. But Casale, unable to keep silence in the face of the direct accusations made against him, brought an action for libel against the director of the *Propaganda.* He believed that he should gain a verdict by placing the action on political grounds, by attacking the Socialists as such; but neither public opinion nor his judges fell into the trap. All understood that the honor of Naples was at stake; and as the pillagers and plunderers had gradually restricted the number of the sharers of the spoils, many who had been excluded came forward with their testimony. The witnesses summoned by Casale to attest his honesty and uprightness declined the office. Called upon to explain his private resources, to say how he managed to live like a prince on a pauper's income, he tried to withdraw the action; but the Public Minister, seeing that even the Syndic Summonte, when summoned, failed to appear, declared that no other witnesses for the defence need be summoned, and, instead of drawing up a case for the plaintiff Casale, denounced him severely, and expressed his surprise that a public officer (Comm. F. S. Gargiulo, substitute of the Procurator-General at the Court of Cassation in Naples) should have come forward to maintain the honesty of Casale.

The sentence of the tribunal was most severe. It was found that "the facts asseverated by the *Propaganda* were fully proved." The conclusion of the sentence is tremendous:

"To all these specified facts of such ex-

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ceptional gravity that the plaintiff resorted to a prudent retreat, is joined the public voice, which continues terrible and incessant, and has reached high functionaries who, present at the trial, were unable to refute it. This element cannot be ignored, as it but sums the affirmations which have long resounded throughout the country concerning the extraordinary influence exercised by Casale under cover of his political principles. The immorality thence emanating is such as to nauseate every honest conscience, and to affirm this in a verdict is the commencement of regeneration."

In consequence Casale was compelled to resign his seat in Parliament and in the provincial council. The municipal council, directly aimed at by the verdict, had, after a vain struggle, to resign. Then a proposal made in December, 1899, by eleven members of Parliament, but rejected, was revived, and, despite the protests of the Neapolitan press, which with three exceptions was in the pay of the spoilsmen, carried the day; the then president of the Council of Ministers, Senator Saracco, proposing a royal commission of inquiry, with plenipotentiary powers, and appointing a Royal Commissioner to administer the commune of Naples.

The report of the Commission, which occupies two folio volumes of 900 pages each, touches but slightly on the years preceding 1876, so that the Moderate party does not really come in for its just share of blame for corruption, malversation, and alliance with the Camorra; but enough is proved to show that to it belongs the beginning of the hideous story. It dwells briefly on the administrations between 1876 and 1896, giving strict account of the four years that elapsed between 1896 and 1900. In 1896 arose the administration which, in the words of the Commissioners, "was, headed by Summonte and his followers, the commencement of the shameful corruption, the disastrous evils, which culminated in the catastrophe of 1900." Some of the councillors, after denouncing the general state of corruption in all grades of the administration, succeeded in getting a commission of inquiry. Appalling revelations were made, but the whole affair was quashed by Casale and Summonte. The same happened with the inquiry into the conduct and condition of the municipal guards. The jobbery in the new contract for the water-works of the Serino, for electric illumination for the tramways, takes away one's breath by its colossal scale, its flagrant impudence. The municipal technical council protested in vain; the corrupt domination of Deputy Casale overpowered all attempts of brave and honest citizens. The Secretary-General of the municipality, Cammarota, resigned his post, being unable "to fulfil his duties and to secure the public administration of the city." Despite the constant cooking of the budgets, enormous deficits continued to increase. The remuneration of the servants of the municipality was increased from three to nine thousand lire per month. New posts were created, and, of course, all the employed were converted into electoral agents and actors. The corruption in the educational departments passes description. Masters and mistresses, many without certificates, were appointed, after paying a fixed tax. Parents of children were induced to vote on the promise of special advantages to their children. One assessor of public instruction writes: "The greater number of schoolmasters belong to the Association of Teachers; they are the worst of their class, and are controlled by Marzano, the sectional director, who is allowed a free hand by the administration, and uses it to ruin the schools. The directors and directresses coerce the masters and mistresses, who in their turn work upon the parents on the *do ut des* principle." This association secured 1,500 votes, and, united to that of Casale Aliberti, controlled 6,000 votes. Payments, gifts, etc., on the eve of the elections, surpassed half a million.

A small minority protested in vain; the Summonte administration had bought up, with three exceptions, the entire Neapolitan press. The director of the *Corriere di Napoli* had headed his leader on the nomination of Summonte for Syndic with the words "La Vergogna è Consumata," but, appointed inspector of the tramways, suddenly discovered the perfection of the new Summonte administration. The editors Rosolino and Rota were also employed by the municipality, and their reports duly corrected by the Syndic. But this was not all, as De Martino, who was the first to reveal in Parliament the iniquities of the Summonte administration, testifies. The responsibility of the trinity Summonte, Casale, Scarfoglio, cannot be separated. No favor could be obtained from the Syndic without the intervention of Scarfoglio, editor of the *Matin*, or his substitute, Vincenzio Candia. These creatures sold their patronage for hard cash—12,000 lire for the concession of the baths, 30,000 for the prevention of a company for electric illumination, 18,000 for a tramway company, while in the "scandalous loan contract" 500,000 was divided between Scarfoglio, Summonte, Casale, and one Delieto. Not only Scarfoglio, the cleverest journalist in Naples, but his wife, the great novelist, Matilda Serao, is exposed with chapter and text as a saleswoman of places and posts. The details are all too nauseous to continue.

The sensation created throughout the country may be imagined, but people were prepared to hear the worst. "Could any sound thing come out of Naples?" Zanardelli thought there could, and the King seems to have been of this opinion. So the Prime Minister refused to prolong the sojourn of the Royal Commissioner at the head of the administration, and the general elections were announced. The Government abstained from the faintest pressure. The electors were left for the first time severely alone. The Camorra united their forces, not putting forward as candidates either Casale or Summonte, but hoping to secure the election of the rank and file of their followers. Not one succeeded. All political questions were tabooed; the candidates supported were "honest men," or at least such as had not a stain on their reputation. Many of them had been among the first and the most constant in exposing the infamy of the last administration when at the zenith of its power. About an equal number of Catholics and Moderates have been elected, and, for the minority, all the Socialist candidates put forward. The *Pungolo Parlamentare* and the *Roma*, the two honest newspapers never tainted by, and always declared opponents and denouncers of, the Camorra, are jubilant. They from the first appealed to Zanardelli and to Giolitti to allow the elections to take place at once in order to prove to the world that not Naples was corrupt, but merely a certain number of malefactors whom circumstances and sins of omission and commission on the part of the central Government had rendered omnipotent. The inquiry had proved the culpability of these usurpers; only the electors of Naples could pass sentence on them by rejecting them with contumely and unanimously. The sentence has been passed and can never be revoked. It now remains for the judicial authorities to perform their part.

Naturally, the condemned are vociferous in proclaiming their innocence. Scarfoglio dedicates twenty-five columns to prove that only envy of his genius and success as a journalist led to the accusations, and promises defiantly to triumph over all his calumniators. Matilda Serao fills the papers of Berlin, Vienna, and, where she can secure admittance, of Paris, with her lamentations, and insults the entire Italian race and nation, including the dead King and his young successor. Summonte has written a pamphlet to prove the virtue and beneficent results of his administration. But no one heeds any one of the protesters. All know that the accusations are true and "proven." The grand question now is how to repair the evil accomplished, and to prevent the upas tree cut down to its roots from putting forth fresh shoots from the undersoil. A very careful perusal of the two volumes impresses one with the immense difficulties of the situation. Local taxation is enormous and cannot be increased to supply the two millions annual deficit or the ten millions of accumulated deficit. But of the taxes voted about 30 per cent. are unpaid, and the non-payment has been connived at, nay condoned, by the municipality. Most of the remedial measures proposed by the Commissioners have been accepted by the Government. Zanardelli, in his grand speech of December 13, which was applauded by all parties and sections of the House, has pledged the Government and the nation to use every effort for the redemption of the southern provinces at any cost or sacrifice—not by violent, spasmodic measures, but by a gradual system of necessary public works, such as the aqueduct of the Puglie. Meanwhile, the inquiry into the administration of the charitable institutions and of the provincial administration is to be carried out without delay. At the same time the inquiry into the municipal administration of Palermo has just terminated and the municipal council dissolved.

Italy on the whole is looking up. Her finances have never been in such a flourishing condition as at the present moment; her commerce and industries are on the increase; gold is nearly at par. It was a fitting moment for this moral inquiry to be set on foot at the moment of her ascertained material progress. I find many "competent" persons, who, five years ago, despaired, now really hopeful, yet anxiously watching events, and awaiting the results of certain trials of notorious criminals belonging to the Mafia, who have hitherto escaped conviction. We confess ourselves to a certain amount of hopefulness, but it is accompanied by a much larger portion of fear and trembling. J. W. M.

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THE PROSPERITY OF BRITISH INDIA.

DUBLIN, December 14, 1901.

I have before me one of the most startling works that have appeared of late years upon British rule in India.* It is by William Digby, a competent authority. He resided in India for many years, was decorated by Government for his services, and is the author of several works upon Indian subjects. Adopting the words of the late Secretary of State for India, he says: "The question I wish to consider is, whether that Government, with all its machinery, as now existing in India, has, or has not, promoted the general prosperity of the people of India, and whether India is better or worse off by being a province of the British crown; that is the test." He answers this question upon the whole in the negative. "Only as [my] statements are adequately supported by the evidence—all, be it never overlooked, obtained from Government sources; in economic matters my sole reliance is on the official evidence—do I ask for their acceptance."

We have here a storehouse of facts and figures illustrated by diagrams. The author's statements would perhaps carry more weight if less emotionally put forward—if there were less poetry and fewer lines of capitals and exclamation marks; if the facsimile writing with which the book opens were in ordinary print, and if there were less continual thrusting upon the reader of the moral drawn by the author from the facts stated. In estimating the weight to be attached to his general conclusions it may be well to bear in mind that *India*, the official organ in England of the Indian National Congress, refrains from actually endorsing Mr. Digby's inferences. In an appreciative review, it says: "Its value may be open to discussion. But at least it cannot be said that those who insist on the prosperity—the increasing prosperity—of India, have no case to answer."

Mr. Digby acknowledges benefits conferred upon India by intercourse with the West and by British rule. He are given a list of thirty objectionable or murderous customs, in full force one hundred and fifty years ago, now obsolete, but—

"certain evils have been developed as the result of our rule which kill more people in a week than Suttee was responsible for in fifty years. However, be that as it may, I am anxious to put in the forefront the beneficent results of British rule. The more they are recorded, the better for the argument of this book. For the incidents related show that the power to insure beneficence exists as well as the desire to do well by India; and while these are in existence, awaiting appropriate circumstances for manifestation, there is hope for India's recovery."

The picture drawn of the present condition of the country is dark enough. Within the ten years 1891-1900, 19,000,000 of our fellow-subjects in India have died of famine, nearly four times as many as the war-deaths of the civilized world, 1793-1900. Mr. Digby calculates the average annual income of the population in British India at 22s. 6d. (against 40s., the estimate of Lord Curzon); or, excluding 1,100,000 of the wealthy classes, only 12s per annum, as the income of 230,000,000 of the people. He believes that, in the absence of special seasons of famine, there are 70,000,000 hungry people in the country; but that famine has now become chronic. In 1890, among an Indian agricultural population of 140,000,000, from whom reliable returns could be obtained, there were but 90,000,000 animals—cows, bulls, buffaloes, horses, donkeys, sheep, and goats (against, it may be said, 9,700,000 among a population of 4,750,000 in Ireland at the same date). In India twenty-three years is the average of life; in Great Britain, forty. An average of twenty pounds each of salt is what such a population of vegetarians would naturally require; all they can afford is thirteen pounds, including what is used in manufactures. Salt has within a century quintupled in price. Mr. Digby is of opinion that, while education and enlightenment are spreading among the middle and upper classes, the masses of the people are growing poorer year by year. In the first quarter of the century just ended there were five famines and 1,000,000 deaths from famine; in the second quarter, two famines and 500,000 deaths; in the third, six famines and 5,000,000 deaths; in the fourth, eighteen famines and 26,000,000 deaths. A non-official estimate of Indian average income in 1850 put it at 2d. a day; an official estimate in 1882, 1½d.; Mr. Digby estimates it at present as ¾d. He calculates the taxation of India as 3s. 3d. per head (one-seventh of income), or, outside 1,100,000 of the richer classes, 2s. 6d. per head (one-fifth of income), while in the United Kingdom the taxation is about £2 13s. 8d. (one-fifteenth of income). Apart from these proportions, it is manifestly easier to pay the latter sum on an income of £40, than the former on an income of 12s. 6d. India has, upon the whole, grown poorer since its first occupation (*India* pertinently remarks that the absence of reliable records and statistics in the earlier periods makes comparison with the present difficult). Our author compares what Lord Clive said of Murshidabad, the old capital of Bengal, when he entered it in 1757, with what could be said of any Indian city now: "This city is as extensive, populous, and rich as the city of London, with this difference—that there are individuals in the first possessing infinitely greater property than in the last city."

Mr. Digby believes the main cause of India's deepening poverty to be the manner in which her wealth and resources have been and are drained off and spent in England. Whatever the misdoings and exactions of her previous conquerors, the money levied by them was spent in the country. He believes the wonderful start made by England at the end of the eighteenth century was largely upon the capital drawn from India—that between the battle of Plassy, 1757, and Waterloo, 1815, £1,000,000,000 was transferred from Indian hoards to English banks. That this drain continues he has no doubt. He more than once quotes one of Lord Salisbury's cynical admissions, that "India must be bled." The present annual drain to England, consequent upon India's conquest and dependent position, he calculates at some £22,000,000. (Mr. Naoroji, late M. P. for Finsbury, in his 'Poverty and Un-British Rule in India,' puts it at a higher figure.) Such estimates imply consideration of some of the most delicate and intricate problems in economics and finance, not easy for the ordinary reader to grasp or follow.

Taking the returns for 1898-99, there was paid in India for Government salaries, with proportionate retiring allowances. £10,488,000; £5,333,000 went to 8,000 Europeans, an average of £607 each; £4,666,000 went to 130,000 Indians, an average of £36 each; £487,000 went to 6,000 mixed race, an average of £81 each. Mr. Digby and others believe that most of the work of the country could be effectively done by Indians themselves, with large saving to the public. The lowering of the mental calibre and spirits of the people by present methods of rule he believes to be one cause of the depression and want of energy and initiative in the country generally. Respect for Indian character and the weight attached to Indian opinion diminish in proportion as we recede from the days when Indians, in command of completely equipped armies, faced us in battle, when they ruled as emperors, when they walled great cities and erected forts, temples, palaces, and mausoleums which will be the wonder of all time; when every necessary and luxury and ornament of life was produced by Indians in India itself. In proportion as transit between England and India has become easier, the English in India have come to consider India as less of a home, more as a place of exile; native society has been less necessary to them, native opinion of less account; while Indians are appointed in the minority on divisional councils.

"Not one Indian, during a whole century, has occupied a seat in the Supreme, or Presidency, or Provincial Executive Councils, nor in the Secretary of States Council in England. . . . Given fair play, Indian administrators would, in their own way, and so far as circumstances permitted, have become the equals of Cavour, of Gortchakoff, of Gladstone, of Disraeli. . . . Their natural abilities being what they are, where do they show in the nineteenth century?"

"'As a hindrance to their proper recognition as men of character and often of noble life," Mr. Digby considers, "the Christian missionary societies of England interested in India have done the Indian people almost irremediable mischief." Missionary societies, in their widespread and continuous propaganda at home, urge their claims for support largely upon depreciation, often shamefully untrue depreciation, of Indian character. They thereby also curry favor with the official classes in India, falling in with their desire to hold Government positions as far as possible in European hands.

We must all hope that Mr. Digby's description of the condition of affairs in India is unduly discouraging. It differs widely from that of Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., in 1894, towards the close of a long official career as Finance Minister of India. "Mr. J. S. Mill declared his belief that the British Government in India was 'not only one of the purest in intention, but one of the most beneficent in act, ever known amongst mankind.' I do not doubt that this is still truer now." Mr. Digby's statements, however, must be met by counter statements and argument, not by mere denial. Political experience teaches us that official opinion can nowhere be safely regarded as infallible—especially in relation to systems which the official administers. The United Kingdom, if it is to do its duty, must more than heretofore apply itself to

*"'Prosperous" British India: A Revelation from Official Records.' By William Digby, C.I.E., author of 'The Famine Campaign in Southern India, 1877-'79' [and other works]. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1901. Pp. xlviii, 661, map, 21 diagrams.

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the consideration of Indian affairs. An empire cannot be based upon lasting foundations where citizens in one portion of it are refused admission or placed under restrictions in other portions, and where race and color are bars to equal advancement.

D. B.

THE GRANDE MADEMOISELLE.—II.

PARIS, January 4, 1902.

The Grande Mademoiselle was among the bitterest enemies of Mazarin. It was the fashion of the time to be in the opposition; all the "people of quality" were hostile to the foreigner who was the ruler of France, who filled his coffers with French money. Mazarin was a shrewd politician, and had many means of spreading division among his enemies; his strongest card was the Queen herself. Many historians have asserted that there was a secret marriage between the Queen Regent and her minister. There does not exist any positive proof of this, but the famous "carnets," Mazarin's letters to the Queen, all we know from the memoirs of the time, tend to show that the power of the handsome Italian Cardinal over the Queen was unbounded. All Paris was persuaded that the Queen was his mistress. Anne of Austria found in her bed anonymous letters expressing the anger of her subjects. Mademoiselle followed the fashion; she had a poor opinion of Mazarin, and openly declared herself against him.

She was now twenty years old. She describes herself at that time in the famous 'Gallery of Portraits' which she wrote—a volume exceedingly rare in its original form (M. Édouard de Barthélemy published a new edition of it in 1860). Such "portraits" were a fashion of the time. Mademoiselle is very indulgent to her own charms, on which she dilates complacently. In another volume, 'Portraits of the Court,' she is thus represented by an anonymous writer:

"This princess of the blood of kings and princes is proud, bold, and of a courage more masculine than feminine. She may with truth be called an Amazon, and more capable of using arms than the spindle. . . . She is proud, enterprising, free of speech, and cannot bear anything which seems contrary to her thought. She never liked the ministers of the King or of her father, because she was obliged to show them some deference. . . . She is of an impatient humor; her spirit is active and her heart ardent in whatever she undertakes. . . . She does not know what dissimulation means, and expresses her sentiments without caring for anything."

With such a character and such sentiments, it is not surprising that Mademoiselle found a natural field for her activity in the troubled period which in the history of France bears the name of the "Fronde," and which may be called the heroic period of her life.

Paris was in a state of fermentation during all the time of the Regency of Anne of Austria. The Parlement and the Court were at open war. Mademoiselle, no more than the other great ladies of the Fronde, was animated by any other sentiments than pride, personal ambition, family hatreds and ambitions. She is candid enough to tell us that when she heard of the great victory of the Prince de Condé at Lens over the Spaniards (August 20, 1648), she was very sorry; she considered the branch of the Condés as dangerous to her own. "Nobody," she says, "dared to give me the news. The report of the battle which had come from Paris [she was at the time in her château of Bois-le-Vicomte, near Meaux] was put on my table; when I left my bed, I saw this paper. I read it with much astonishment and pain. . . . At this juncture I found myself a good enemy rather than a good Frenchwoman."

On the day when the Parisians made barricades in 1648, Mademoiselle was curious to see the spectacle. She crossed the Pont-Neuf; the chains which the Parisians had placed across the streets fell before her. "Popularity," says Arvède Barine, "is never based on reason in Paris; the men in the street adored this authoritative Princess. . . . At the end of her excursion Mademoiselle became a prisoner of her popularity." After the day of the barricades, on the 13th of September, before daylight, Mazarin took the young Louis XIV. out of his bed and fled with him from Paris. The Queen followed them on the road to Rueil. Her flight left the Parlement sole master of Paris. The consternation was general. All the people who depended on the Court left the capital. Mademoiselle, though she was a Frondeuse, viewed the disorder of Paris with much concern. She was also a Princess, and did not like to see the authority of the King diminished. One day she approved the acts of the Parlement, the next day she looked upon them as a usurpation.

The Queen came back to Paris on the 31st of October at the instance of the Parlement, but found there such a state of things that she fled a second time in the night of the 5th of January. She established herself at Saint-Germain with the little Louis XIV. This time Mademoiselle followed her. She had very uncomfortable lodgings at Saint-Germain, but she was "a creature . . . much above trifles." Curiously enough, the populace of Paris, which would not allow any vehicle to leave the capital for Saint-Germain, where the Queen and the Court were in need of everything, always allowed Mademoiselle's chariots a free passage. "The Queen and King," said she, "were in want of everything and I had all that I wished. For all the things which I sent for in Paris, passports were given and an escort; nothing could equal the civilities which were paid me." This quite consoled Mademoiselle; it became clear to her that such popularity marked her to become the wife of her young cousin and the Queen of France. When peace was signed between the Court and the Parlement, Mademoiselle returned to the Tuileries on the 8th of April, and was received with great demonstrations. The Queen brought back her son on the 18th of August, and the popular enthusiasm was at its height. Mazarin had the great success of the day; the people applauded him as a liberator.

After the Fronde of the Parlement came another Fronde, called the "Fronde des Princes." Mademoiselle had to follow the Court, which went from province to province in order to suppress the insurrections. She was at Libourne, with the Court, on the 1st of August, when she heard, to her great satisfaction, that her father had taken the part of mediator between the Court and the rebel princes. She became at once the most important person at court. The Queen showed her the dispatches, Mazarin affected to consult her; she had her own couriers from Paris. When Bordeaux was taken, the inhabitants had eyes only for her. "During the six days which were spent there by the Court," writes Mademoiselle, "nobody went to the Queen, and people did not care when she was in the street. I don't know whether she found it agreeable to hear that my court was full and that everybody was there, while nobody went to her." The Court stopped a few days in Fontainebleau before re-entering Paris. Negotiations took place, in which Mazarin was sacrificed. It was agreed that the princes imprisoned at Vincennes and afterwards at Havre, among whom was the Prince de Condé, should be set free, and that Mazarin should be exiled. When Condé came back to Paris, Mademoiselle gives a curious account of her first meeting with him at the Luxembourg. She had always had a great aversion to him, but she now had an idea that, if the Princess de Condé, who was very ill, died, she might perhaps marry him:

"We mutually confessed the aversion we had always felt towards each other. He told me he was delighted when I had the smallpox, and hoped that I should always be marked with it, that I should have some deformity—in fact, that nothing could equal the hatred he felt for me. I admitted that I never felt so much joy as when he was put in prison, that I had longed for it, that I could not think of him except to wish him some evil. . . . These explanations lasted some time; they amused the company much, and ended in many assurances of friendship on both sides."

The Princess de Condé insisted on living, and Mademoiselle turned her eyes again on Louis XIV. Anne of Austria amused her with this idea, but never entertained it seriously.

During the year 1651, Mademoiselle spent her time in enjoying her popularity. She was anxious to find an occasion on which she might do something heroic. Condé was again at war; he had called the Spaniards to his aid, and was determined to keep Mazarin out of the kingdom. Retz and the bulk of the Frondeurs now stood by the Queen, and were even willing, for her sake, to recall Mazarin. The city of Orléans, which was in the *apanage* of Monsieur, was between two fires; it called Monsieur to the rescue—or Mademoiselle, his daughter. Her joy was boundless; she could now take part in the war. She organized a staff, she made herself a sort of uniform, and started for Orléans amid the applause of the people. She arrived on horseback on the 27th of March, 1652. The gates were shut and barricaded. She shouted who she was; the troops on the walls paid her military honors, but the gates were still shut. The inhabitants were afraid that an army would come in behind her. She turned the city, and, reaching the Loire, crossed it, and came to a gate on the quay. This she had broken open, and entered the city by a hole. She was at once borne in triumph; a company of soldiers accompanied her and her two ladies, Madame de Fiesque and Madame de Frontenac. Mademoiselle went to the Hôtel de Ville, made a fine speech to the authorities, and convoked a counsel of war.

On her return to Paris, she became a witness of the great battle of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine. Condé, who was hard pressed before the walls of Paris, called in Monsieur as his ally. Monsieur did not budge, but Mademoiselle, who, since she had taken Orléans, felt very heroic, went to the Fau-

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bourg, turned the guns of Paris against the royal troops, and saved Condé. This exploit marked the end of the heroic part of her life.

We hope that Arvède Barine will soon give us as interesting an account of the second part of the life of this extraordinary person, who, with all her folly and vanity, is, nevertheless, worthy of some sympathy, and is, at any rate, a very original figure.

Correspondence.

WHAT HAS TAMED THE COLLEGES?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A newspaper item, lately noticed, relates to the deportation of students from Russian universities. Many scores, perhaps many hundreds, having been concerned in revolutionary demonstrations, have been sent to the army to serve terms of various lengths. The statement calls to mind the fact that students, as a class, have been restive under oppression. From the schools ardent and enthusiastic young men have swarmed out to do battle for liberty; their words and their works have stirred us deeply. When, just before the civil war, an oration, entitled "Italia Resurgens," was pronounced by one who afterwards commanded colored troops, he received such applause as had seldom been heard in the college church; and later, when the stress of the civil war was on us, self-surrender for principle was strikingly illustrated by the young men of the schools as singly, or in little groups, or, as in one case, in a full company, they entered the military service "to make men free." How fitting it would be that some adequate record of those words and deeds should be made.

And now, when the "avowed object" of a needless war is disregarded, when information in regard to our "criminal aggression" is denied to our people, in whose name the war is carried on; when the national Administration is adopting the measures of Lord North and George III.; and when American principles are again treated with insolence, as in the days of American slavery, it seems that some protest from the colleges is needed. John Fiske, speaking of the insignificant tax which was the occasion of the Revolutionary war, says: "The effect which a blow in the face would produce upon a barbarian, will be brought upon a civilized man by the assertion of some far-reaching legal principle, which only in a subtle and ultimate analysis includes the possibility of a blow in the face."

What has tamed the student body?

What has silenced the teaching force?

H.

January 17, 1902.

THE PHILIPPINE SOLDIER'S RETURN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your No. 1904, under "The Week," appears a short article, concerning the soldier in his relation to the service in the Philippines, which shows such a marked misapprehension of the subject that I cannot but believe you will allow yourself to be set right.

The failure of soldiers to reënlist in the Philippines, and their desire to "get home," does not show "how utterly unattractive the *insular* conditions are." It would be the same under any conditions of climate and place. It is a well-known fact that soldiers, especially the youngsters that have gone into the ranks for the adventure of it (like most of those in the Philippines), like to go back to their homes and friends to tell their deeds. I have, in connection with the discharge of the late volunteer regiments, and of the regular soldiers being discharged at this camp, seen the discharge certificates of many thousand soldiers returned from the islands, and scarcely one of them all has not borne the names of one or more—usually several—actions, under the head of "Battles, Engagements, Skirmishes, and Expeditions," in which the soldier had taken part. Almost every man has been under fire one or several times, and he wants to go home and talk about it. After discharged soldiers have gone home and spent two or three months with their friends and kin, a large proportion of them are ready to "take on again."

And, further, the Department is experiencing no difficulty in enlisting men for service in the Philippines, although the same cannot be said with respect to the companies of seacoast artillery serving in the States.

It is, however, a pity that steps have not been taken to induce soldiers to reënlist in the Philippines. When the cost is considered of returning a soldier to the United States, and giving him his pay and allowances during the time consumed in the voyage, and the cost of recruiting a man to take his place, transporting him to the islands, and paying him for all this time lost, a bounty of say $500 would be a cheap price to pay every soldier that would reënlist and continue with his company in the islands—without taking into account the fact that a trained soldier would be gotten, instead of a raw recruit that is only a burden to his company and an expense to the Government for at least his first six months.

M. F. Steele,
Captain Sixth Cavalry.

Discharge Camp, Angel Island, Cal.,
January 8, 1902.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY AND THE WAR WITH SPAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A hundred times I have pronounced the statement that the late President McKinley was forced into the attack on Spain against his will an absurdity. Now that it has appeared in the *Nation*, I am almost compelled to doubt my sanity. For nearly forty years now, the *Nation* has been to me Holy Scripture. I have accustomed myself seldom to confute, but always to understand, what I read in it. But this I cannot understand. It must be at least conceivable, but to me it is still inconceivable.

Did Mr. McKinley say so? That would be evidence that he thought so; but might he not have been laboring under a delusion? If the thing was impossible, he certainly was; if it was possible, then I suggest that we make it impossible by Constitutional amendment or otherwise, and that right soon. If it was true, then his subsequent conduct should be reconcilable with it; is it so? Let there be light.

Respectfully, Truthseeker.

Granville, O., January 15, 1902.

[The most direct and positive evidence on this question is the late Representative Boutelle's assertion that a belligerent group in the House "held a stop-watch over the President." This implies that there was a time when he was indisposed to go to war. His refusal to submit the cause of the *Maine's* destruction to arbitration—the last straw of drowning peace—marked the completeness of his surrender to the war-makers, and also of his assumption of moral responsibility for the ensuing hostilities. We will add our opinion that he still posed as a friend of peace after he had made up his mind to succumb—thereby lulling into fatal inactivity that part of the public which was revolted by the mere thought of war.—Ed. Nation.]

FACTS ABOUT THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As Mr. Balch, in common with almost all the writers and speakers in this country who touch upon the matter, has much befogged the real points at issue, I earnestly hope that you will permit me, through your columns, to give a brief statement of the facts upon which Canada bases her claim. They are as follows:

(1.) That the strait now called Portland Channel, through which the United States have run their line of demarcation, is not, and cannot be, the Portland Channel referred to in the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1825, upon which the title of the United States to their Alaskan territory is founded; and that, in consequence of this erroneous assumption, Canada has been deprived of a large extent of territory rightfully belonging to her.

(2.) That, in running their line of demarcation ten marine leagues from the shores of every inlet that debouches from the sea-coast, instead of from the sea-coast itself, the United States have violated the true intent of the treaty; these inlets being, in fact, but narrow fjords, only a few miles in width at their greatest extension, and in no sense being a part of the coast proper.

In support of the first contention, I would refer to the words of the treaty itself. In laying down the line of demarcation, it says:

"À partir du point le plus méridional de l'île dite Prince of Wales, lequel point se trouve sous le parallèle du 54me degré 40 minutes de latitude nord, et entre le 131me et le 133me degré de longitude ouest; la dite ligne remontera au nord le long de la passe dite Portland Channel, jusqu'au point de la terre ferme où elle atteint le 56me degré de latitude nord; de ce dernier point la ligne de démarcation suivra la crête des montagnes situées parallèlement à la côte, jusqu'au point d'intersection du 141me degré de longitude ouest, etc."

Now I affirm that no unprejudiced person who reads the above and afterwards consults a map of the territory involved, can say that they furnish sufficient evidence to establish the claim of the United States.

By the terms of the treaty, the line of demarcation is to begin at the southernmost point of the Prince of Wales Island; from that point it is to *ascend* to the north along a strait called Portland Channel until it

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reaches a point on the mainland where it attains the 56th degree of north latitude. Does the line as laid down by the United States do this? Not by any manner of means! Instead of ascending to the north, as the treaty says it shall do, it actually *descends*, passing along a line *a little south of east*, for a distance of *one hundred and thirty miles!* Then, and then only, it begins to meander northward.

So far, it must be clear to the unprejudiced investigator that there is something wrong either with the treaty or with the American interpretation thereof. Let us see, then, what other interpretation is possible and reasonable.

Turn again to the map, and place one end of a ruler upon the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, which, as we have seen, is the place where the line of demarcation begins, the other end pointing northward. It will be seen that it follows very nearly the course of the eastern arm of a channel marked upon some maps as "Clarence Strait." This channel actually terminates at the prescribed latitude of 56 degrees north, which the one now called Portland does not. I say it will be found that the ruler very nearly follows the course of this channel; it does not quite, for it cuts off some outlying edges of the island. It is this fact which furnishes one of the strongest proofs of the correctness of Canada's claim. Taken in connection with a clause of the treaty which provides "que l'île dite Prince of Wales appartiendra toute entière à la Russe," it shows almost conclusively that this strait, and not the one now so designated, was referred to in the treaty by the name of "Portland Channel."

The only possible explanation of this clause is that the line of demarcation as laid down in the treaty, if strictly followed, would leave some part of the island outside of the territory assigned to Russia, and therefore this provision was inserted in order that it might retain the whole. This explanation accords with the hypothesis that the line of demarcation was intended to pass through the strait now called "Clarence," and not the one now called "Portland," for if the line ran through the latter, there would be no need of a special clause to preserve the whole island to Russia, for every part of it would be at least a hundred miles inside the territory assigned to that country.

With regard to the second contention on behalf of Canada, the question turns upon the true meaning of the word "sinuosities" which occurs in the treaty. Does it mean, as is claimed it does by Canada, that the line shall follow the coast proper, or that it shall follow up every narrow inlet, one of which at least runs into the mainland for over a hundred miles, and the upper part of which no more resembles the sea-coast than do the Palisades of the Hudson? This second contention is also strengthened by a clause in the treaty which grants to Great Britain the right to "free navigation" of all these inlets. Of what use would this be did she not own their upper reaches?

As to the first, it is not at all unlikely that the name Portland Channel was anciently applied to a different strait from the one now known by that name. A similar confusion occurred many years ago when, in an attempt to delineate the boundary line between the United States and British possessions, the question arose as to what was the stream referred to in the treaty by the name of St. Croix River. The dispute was settled to the satisfaction of both parties.

Mr. Balch claims, as other writers and speakers have done, that the United States is "entitled by long uninterrupted occupancy to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland, etc." If my memory serves me aright, a similar claim was set up on behalf of Great Britain in the Venezuelan matter, which claim was received with indignant remonstrance in this country as being an instance of British arrogance. America of course is incapable of arrogance. In any case this plea is beside the question, for there happens to be a clause in the treaty made to fit this possibility, which clause expressly denies prescriptive rights to either party.

I am, Mr. Editor, respectfully yours,

ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

SANTA ANA, CAL., January 8, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. John Lane's spring announcements include a two-volume edition of the poems of Arthur Symons; a limited edition of a three-volume edition of Shelley's poems, uniform with Keats's, printed in the Vale type; 'A Garden in the Suburbs,' by Mrs. Leslie Williams; and 'The Book of Bulbs.'

From Doubleday, Page & Co. we are to have 'An Introduction to the Study of English Poetry,' by Prof. Mark H. Liddell; 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt; and 'A Retrospect of Some Literary Immortals,' by Francis W. Halsey.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will publish 'Ocean to Ocean,' a narrative of a surveying trip across Nicaragua, by Lieut. James G. Walker, U. S. N.; and a new edition of Sheldon's 'Notes on the Nicaragua Canal'; 'Nestlings of Forest and Marsh,' by Mrs. Irene Wheelock; a volume of literary essays by William Morton Payne; 'Letters to an Enthusiast,' by Mary Cowden Clarke; a 'Selection of the World's Greatest Short Stories,' by Sherwin Cody; and 'Right Reading,' a body of counsel selected from ten famous authors.

'The Ancient Catholic Church' (to A. D. 451), by Dr. Robert Rainy, principal of the New College, Edinburgh, and 'Philosophy of Conduct,' by Prof. George T. Ladd of Yale, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

P. Blakiston's Son & Co., as American agents, announce an important undertaking to cover five years, namely, 'An Atlas of Clinical Medicine, Surgery, and Pathology,' which will be issued in quarterly parts—eight to ten plates at a time—in connection with the regular publications of the New Sydenham Society.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue directly Renan's 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse,' annotated by Irving Babbitt, primarily for college use, but also to the advantage of the general reader.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole is preparing a revised bibliography of the translations or other editions of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, to be included in a new issue of the "Multivariorum Edition" published by L. C. Page & Co. He would be grateful for any information regarding any editions, or magazine articles containing longer or shorter selections from the works of the astronomer poet, whether in English or in foreign languages. Letters should be addressed to him at Jamaica Plain, Mass.

'The Love Poems of Sir John Suckling' is the latest issue in John Lane's "The Lovers' Library," small, companionable volumes takingly furnished with text printed in one color (here green) and framed in another (here violet), and as daintily bound. We could have desired a modernizing of the punctuation.

Lovers of Dicky Doyle will welcome the reprint of Thackeray's 'The Newcomes' that comes to us from Macmillan with that genial artist's illustrations, both in the letter-press and on the wrapper and title-pages of the 1853 edition. They have a certain affinity with Thackeray's own ingenuous designs, but the author could not have produced the hustings riot on page 745, nor given the same decorative charm to the initial letters which introduce every chapter. With 844 pages the volume is still not unduly bulky, nor is the print difficult to read.

The useful "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) are increased by a 'Burne-Jones' and a 'Herkomer,' truly a strange pair to be assembled if only by the hazard of a publisher's convenience. These books contain, as is the custom of the series, each more than a hundred illustrations. Ludwig Pietsch celebrates the qualities of Hubert Herkomer in terms of extravagant appreciation; for it is not likely that this versatile artist will ever be mentioned "among the greatest names which have given to the art of the nineteenth century its most illustrious renown." Herr von Schleinitz discusses the works of the late Burne-Jones in a more judicial spirit. Either volume is commendable as a convenient collection of pictures otherwise accessible only in far more expensive form.

The extraordinary alliance which subsists between the republic of France and the empire of Russia naturally raises economic questions of great interest to the French people. Some of these questions are examined by M. J. Machat, in a study entitled 'Le Développement Économique de la Russie' (Paris: Armand Colin). There is no doubt that a considerable amount of foreign capital has lately been invested in Russia; the protective tariff operating as a bounty on such investments. M. Machat determines statistically their extent and their productiveness; but his aim is wider than this. He takes, in the first place, a comprehensive view of the resources of Russia and the conditions of its development, and then proceeds to examine specifically the mineral wealth and its exploitation, the agriculture, the manufactures, the transportation, etc. The results are certainly impressive, but we have no confidence in the methods by which they are obtained. Reliance is placed throughout on the figures given in the reports of the various bureaus of the Russian Government. We know enough of the corruption of that Government to make us doubt whether its functionaries are competent to carry out statistical inquiries with scientific accuracy. There may be 33,000,000 horses and 75,000,000 sheep in Russia, but

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the figures cannot be verified. M. Machat himself says of the number of the sheep, "Négligeons comme trop problématique le chiffre global." Nevertheless, we are bound to say that he does the best with his material, and his book deserves attention.

In his history of the Netherlands people ('Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk,' Groningen: J. B. Wolters), Dr. P. J. Blok, Professor of Dutch history in the University of Leyden, has now completed his fifth volume, which, as usual, comes well indexed and has two colored maps. The latter show the republic as it existed from the peace of Münster in 1648 to the last years of William the Third, King of England and Stadholder of the Netherlands; and the North Sea and English Channel, well marked by the sites of naval battles. The period treated, from 1648 to 1702, was the time of John De Witt and of William the Third, the era of the naval wars of Holland with England, of the culmination of the power of the republic, and of the coalition wars against absolutism and Louis XIV. We reserve comment for the English translation, which we suppose to be in progress.

A publication of great interest to students of Germanic philology in general, and Scandinavian philology in particular, has just been completed in Copenhagen, being the new four-volume edition of Snorri Sturluson's 'Heimskringla,' which has been (since 1893) in course of preparation and publication for the Society for Publication of Old Northern Literature by Finnur Jónsson. The famous Icelandic author's classical work is here for the first time published in full accordance with the best manuscript, the *Kringla*, as it now exists in the paper copy made by Asgeir Jónsson about the year 1700; the original vellum—with the exception of a couple of sheets that in some mysterious manner found their way to Stockholm—having been destroyed in the great Copenhagen conflagration of 1728. A full set of notes gives sufficient information about the variants presented by the other versions of Snorri's work. The fourth volume of the present edition consists of an interpretation of all the Scaldic verses quoted in the several Kings' sagas. The learned Icelandic editor is, beyond dispute, the first living authority in the field of Scaldic interpretation, and there seems to be no limit to his productive capacity. While this edition of Snorri's work has been going on, he has been constantly engaged on his great History of the Old Norwegian and Old Icelandic Literature, of which the first instalment also appeared in 1893, and which will soon be finished, while as side issues, so to say, he has, like a clever prestidigitator, shaken out of his sleeves editions of old sagas, reviews, and essays, pamphlets and criticisms almost without number. Hence it is no wonder that the same package of the Society's publications that brings the last number of his edition of Snorri, also contains an essay by Finnur Jónsson on the Norwegian-Icelandic Scaldic language of about 800-1300.

It may not be out of place to mention here the version of the 'Heimskringla' by Dr. Gustav Storm, recently published in Christiania. As a translation from Icelandic into modern Dano-Norwegian, it can hardly be expected to excite much interest outside of the country of its production; but the fact that it has been illustrated by several of the most prominent Norwegian painters under the editorship of G. Munthe makes it notable on the artistic side, in spite of a doubt whether the designers have been entirely successful in their endeavor. Of this translation there have appeared three distinct editions—one of them, with the assistance of the public treasury, simultaneously with a translation into Landsmaal by S. Schjött, illustrated by the same artists, and extremely cheap. That Storm's translation has a specific, philological value, it is not necessary here to insist upon.

An important work, 'Francesco Pesellino und die Romantik der Renaissance, von Werner Weisbach,' in preparation during the past year by Bruno Cassirer, Berlin (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), with abundant illustrations adapted to a folio page, offers an attraction to Petrarchists on account of the light thrown on the rise and spread of the "Illustrationscyklus" of the "Trionfi."

The pathetic story 'Le Mie Prigioni' will long keep alive the memory of Silvio Pellico as writer and poet, while as patriot he would even now be remembered but by few. The principal charm of the story consists in its temperate tone and apparent truthfulness—qualities which at once made Prince Metternich recognize in the book a source of serious political danger. That Silvio Pellico actually did not exaggerate, that he rather "slightly idealized, his situation during the first period" of his captivity, has now been established beyond a doubt by an examination of official documents in the Vienna archives, a partial account of which is published in the January *Rundschau*. But, aside from this confirmatory evidence, the study of the state papers has led to some important discoveries. Thus, the current assumption that the liberation of Pellico and some of his fellow-sufferers was due to the outbreak of the July Revolution is proved to be erroneous, the fact being that the news of that event came very near causing the revocation of the pardon already granted and partly carried into effect. A more interesting question concerns the fate of several of Pellico's manuscripts, which were confiscated and for many years kept by the authorities in Vienna. The complete official list of them is given in the *Rundschau*. Of the thirteen titles only three appear in Pellico's published works. Whether all of them reached their rightful owner when, four years after his release from the Spielberg, his papers were returned to him, is even now uncertain. So much is sure, that Maroncelli was justified in saying, in 1834, in his 'Addizioni': "Ma la non-restituzione delle carte di Silvio defrauda irreparabilmente uomini e lettere." It seems that this reproach rests even to the present day upon the Austrian Government.

Consular Reports for January contains translations of the official regulations for the reorganization of the Government of China on more modern and efficient lines, and two imperial edicts on education. These provide for the establishing of schools throughout the empire, and order the viceroys and governors to select and send students abroad for the purpose of being educated in special branches of industrial science. Considerable space is devoted to a review of the foreign commerce of Germany for 1900, from which it appears that the United States has by far the largest and most valuable export trade to Germany, while it stands third in respect to the bulk and value of imports from Germany—the total value of both exports and imports being, in round numbers, $350,000,000. For the first six months of 1901 the statistics show an increase in the exports of American cereals and some other articles, and a decline in the exports of cotton and copper. Some interesting statements follow in regard to the present condition of the various German industries, and the effect upon them of American competition, and on the proposed tariff revision. Among other things it is said that "the cost of living is at present from 10 to 50 per cent. higher than in the United States, while wages are about one-third of those paid at home."

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women, through a circular dated January 10, offers to properly qualified college graduates—*i. e.*, "candidates who give promise of distinction in the subjects to which they devote themselves"—a fellowship of $500 for the year 1902-03. Preference will be given, in the award of this fellowship, to women from Maryland and the South. Blank forms for application may be obtained from Miss McLane, No. 1101 N. Charles St., Baltimore, or from any member of the Committee on Award, and should be presented on or before March 25. This fellowship may, in exceptional instances, be held for two successive years by the same person, and work on it may be pursued at a European or American university.

The experience of Massachusetts is being invoked to rescue from destruction, decay, or peril of both, the local archives of the State of New York. The mover in this is the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association, as appears from a leaflet just sent out by Prof. Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia University. "Two towns [of Onondaga County]," we read, "have deliberately burned their old material, and others may be expected to follow the example from time to time." A State Record Commission is the proposed remedy.

A chased silver inkstand was lately presented by the employees of the National Central Library, in Florence, to their honored chief, Commendatore Chilovi, in token of forty years' service, completed on December 15, 1901, and the hope was expressed that he might retain the chief librarianship till the long-deferred new building should become the fitting home of the overgrown collection. The sub-librarian, Signora Castellano-Teloni, had a word of praise for his good will ever manifested toward her sex. Professors Robert Davidson and Heinrich Brockhaus celebrated the pleasant occasion with gifts (statuary and a manuscript).

The anti-foreigner agitation in the higher institutions of learning in Germany is assuming larger proportions. It is directed chiefly against the Russians, and is based on the fact that so many of these, especially the women, are so poorly prepared that they retard the progress of others in the same department. The first steps in the direction of making it impossible for incompetent foreigners to enter these schools came from the Polytechnic Institute in Munich, and were followed by an appeal for redress from the university men at Heidelberg.

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Now a particularly strong protest has come from the medical men at Halle, who state, among other things, that, out of about one hundred in the dissecting department, there are four Russian men and twenty-nine Russian women, nearly all Jews, and that in most cases they are incompetent and socially very objectionable. The students ask for more stringent conditions of admittance to the institutions. The agitation has also spread to Leipzig and Berlin. In the former university the authorities decided not to admit foreigners insufficiently prepared, and in particular that the certificate of the so-called "Girls' Gymnasia" of Russia should no longer be recognized. In Berlin a mass-meeting of the German students, called to protest against the conduct of Polish students who had disturbed the lectures of Professor Schiemann for his having taken an anti-Polish view of the revolution of 1830, resulted in a petition to the authorities that only such non-German students be admitted to university privileges as are ready for academic work. In Brunswick the officials of the Polytechnicum have published a decree that no foreigner shall be admitted unless he have a fair understanding of German.

By a certain historic right, the octogenarian Mommsen, who has always been on the alert whenever university rights and privileges were endangered, is leading in a protest for the independence of German university scholarship, which has been endangered by the action of the Emperor in appointing a distinctively "Catholic" professor of secular history to the philosophical faculty of Strassburg, in the person of Dr. Spahn, a son of the noted Catholic political leader in Parliament. In his "open letter," Mommsen calls this a "confessionalizing" of scientific research, and the establishment of a precedent fatal to the spirit and highest ideals of scholarship. Fully a dozen university faculties have joined in this protest, but these voices have come chiefly from South Germany, the Prussian university faculties seeming to fear the vengeance of the authorities, particularly as the Emperor himself had been so active in dividing the work of history at Strassburg between a Protestant and a Catholic holder of the same chair, where there was formerly but one man. Of Prussian universities, only Kiel and Breslau had the courage to protest. An answer to Mommsen has been published by the leader of Catholic learning in Germany, Count von Hertling, who insists that no scientific research can be or ever is absolutely free from assumptions (*voraussetzungslos*). The discussion has assumed national proportions, and is calling forth expressions from many leaders in university circles.

The German Asiatic Society of Japan, which meets usually in Tokio, and is composed of scholarly and industrious men from the Fatherland, has done noble work in the study of Japanese history, music, science, literature, art, and mythology, and in making known the peculiar traits of the country and people. Already its extremely valuable publications (*Mitteilungen*) have reached eight volumes. Full of interesting matter accurately set forth, instead of the old form of publication, with pages 12x8 inches in size, the more recent volumes have taken the more convenient shape of 8½x6 inches, and the paper is of an improved quality. A striking feature is that of liberal illustration by Japanese artists. Part ii. of volume viii. contains a valuable engineering paper on "The Railways of Japan," one on the "Feast of Bon, or of Floating Lanterns in Memory of the Dead," in which, also, the features of amusements and dances and even small boys' mischief are not forgotten. Professor Aoyama writes of the plague, from a bacteriological point of view, and the Rev. A. Lloyd treats in scholarly fashion of the Dogmatic Anthropology with which Buddhism so fully deals. Two of the papers are well illustrated. As a supplement, we have a limpid translation into German, with abundant and scholarly notes, by Dr. Karl Florenz, Professor of Literature in the Imperial University, of the classic 'Nihongi' (Chronicles of Japan), written in 820 A.D., together with an index and many illustrations of incidents and antiquities, making a thesaurus of learning without knowledge of which no one can presume to be informed about Japan's early history.

—The fourth volume of the 'Letters to Washington' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) carries the correspondence to May, 1774. The absence of an index to the four volumes would show that the Colonial Dames have extended the original plan, and do not intend to limit the series to letters written in colonial times. We trust that this is their decision, for the matter thus published will always be of interest, and is now so widely scattered in so many volumes as to defy research. Force printed in his 'American Archives' such letters from the Washington collection as pertained to the two years covered by his compilation; but this work is not readily consulted, and, being somewhat hastily gathered, shows many serious omissions. The personal element of the letters will give place to the military relations, and much more careful editing will be demanded. Yet, should the volumes be continued, the entire series will be the strongest possible argument in favor of the existence of such a society as that of the Colonial Dames. The neglect shown by the Government of its opportunity, almost its duty, regarding this correspondence, is being compensated by the patriotic efforts of the above society, and a worthy form is now given to material that has not lost its historical value or its personal interest.

—The volume before us contains two series of letters which have already been printed—the Boucher and the Crawford letters. The one relates to the education of young Custis, and throws not a little light on the condition of the colleges of that day; the other turns on Washington's speculations in Western lands, and proves at once his keenness and his eagerness to secure the best. The complicated Colville estate, a part of the management falling upon Washington, involved him in many perplexities, and gave rise to the curious story of his "defalcation." Troublesome, too, was a Mrs. Savage, whom Mercer described as "at the tender Age of three score and ten, denied the Use of Pen Ink Paper & Romances, and a frequent Use of the Strap is substituted in the Place of these Amusements." John Posey, a worthless farmer, was an object of Washington's charity. But the most interesting features of the book will be found in the letters from the overseers of the different plantations belonging to Washington, for they clearly reveal the infinite detail incident to careful management. The tobacco crop was ceasing to be the great commercial crop, and was being replaced by the cultivation of wheat and export of flour to the West Indies and Europe. The mill was an important article in farm economy, and its management demanded better labor than could easily be obtained anywhere in Virginia. The raising of hogs, the profits of the fisheries, the spinning of wool by the sickly negroes, and the demand for farm horses required minute supervision to prevent waste, and the letters from Hill, in old Virginia, and from Simpson, on the Ohio, tell much the same story, save that in the newer region the slave was even at this early period at a disadvantage. The free white was in demand.

—As a commentary on Shakspere, the Oxford English Dictionary can be evaluated only by students. Not all of them are above the error of reading with a modern sense familiar words used by the poet and his contemporaries with quite another connotation. Such words will never be looked up in this Dictionary by the ordinary reader. Notoriously, Dr. Murray's colaborers have failed to explain away every stumbling-block of nonce-words or various puzzling lections; but occasionally they have been able to rebuke accepted emendation and restore the original text. An instance of this occurs in the quarterly issue (Lap-Leisurely) just issued by Henry Frowde. The word "legative" in "Henry VIII.," III. ii. 339, "By your power Legatiue," is maintained as against the "legantine" of modern editions. Per contra, an erratum in Spenser's 'Faerie Queen,' confessed in early editions among "Faults escap'd in the Printing," but overlooked by subsequent editors, introduced a spurious word "lastery" for "castory" into our vocabularies. Milton's true text, again, "I owe no light or leading received from any man in the discovery of the truth," is set over against Burke's manufacture of it into a familiar quotation — the "men . . . of light and leading" in England. Pope's "leather and prunella," in allusion by rank to cobbler and parson (whose gown was made of prunella), has similarly undergone a sea change to make it a current counter of speech, with the meaning 'something to which one is utterly indifferent.' The proverbial expression, "There is nothing like leather," has not been traced beyond Fenning's 'Universal Spelling-book' (1767). "Leatherette" bears the approximate date 1880. "Leap-frog" makes its first appearance in Shakspere (1599), in Henry V. "In the lead" is an American expression; and this substantive, though old and well supported in English usage, was branded by Dr. Johnson as a "low, despicable word." "Launderer" we have retained, though it is obsolete in England after occurring as early as 1475. "Lay of the land" (for "lie") is cited from Thoreau without animadversion as an Americanism; and indeed "lay of the country" is adduced from an English author in 1819.

—The moot order of "last two" versus "two last" (and the like) is thus noticed by Mr. Bradley: "The more frequent form till the seventeenth century appears to be *the two* (*three*, etc.) last (=F. *les deux derniers*,

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G. *die zwei letzten*); . . . the form *the last two* (*three*, etc.) is now the more frequent of the two, except where *last* is equivalent to 'last-mentioned.'" "Last day" for yesterday is still in dialect use, and we have held on to "last evening"; but "last morning" has been given up. Some other relinquishments in this section of the alphabet might also be regretted, as "largerly (largierly)," "latewardly," and "leggiadrous" ('graceful,' 'elegant'), which Petrarch-fed poets, lamenting Laura's "leggiadro portamento altero," might have naturalized from the Italian. When the Gallicism "leaves something to be desired" was first ventured is not established in the Dictionary by example. "By your leave" relates not to permission, but to good pleasure (love, lief). Sharp division in British usage is manifested in the case of "lass," which is in full vogue in northern and northern midland Britain, but has little or no popular currency in southern. The historical side of the Dictionary is illustrated conspicuously under "Law," where are defined Avrogado's law, Boyle's, Gresham's, Grimm's, Verner's, etc. And speaking of law, we should say that in this country one would oftenest hear "learn'd in the law"; but Mr. Bradley recognizes only the dissyllabic pronunciation. Conversely, he has "legg'd" only, whereas we should ordinarily expect to hear "a one-legged man," for instance.

—A valuable supplement to the now numerous critical studies of Ibsen is furnished by J. B. Halvorsen's 'Bibliographical Information concerning Henrik Ibsen's Collected Works,' which was published by Gyldendal of Copenhagen in 1901. At the time of the author's death in February, 1900, the material for all but the last six dramas treated was ready for the press. The task of preparing the remainder, upon the basis of Halvorsen's collections, and following closely his method, was undertaken by his friend, Sten Konow. The plan of the book is briefly as follows: The works are taken up in the chronological order of their publication. A brief general account is followed by a list of editions in the original, accompanied by interesting details about the number of copies printed, etc. Then follow foreign translations and commentaries, concluding with a list of performances, in both Europe and America. Completeness has been aimed at in the account of editions and translations; in the last two items named above only an approximation at completeness outside of Scandinavia is possible. The only marked deficiency in the commentaries is the omission of some valuable English and American criticisms. No mention is made of Payne's translation of Henrik Jæger's 'Ibsen.' Of special interest, as giving less familiar facts, is the section dealing with Ibsen's poems, the first edition of which appeared in 1871. The large number of these poems translated into Polish is noticeable, the reason for it probably being Ibsen's warm love of liberty. One of the verses, written originally in German, and addressed to a German lady, contains a suggestive little piece of self-criticism. It will probably be a source of surprise to most American readers to learn that the first performance of "Ghosts" was given by a Dano-Norwegian company in Chicago, in May, 1382, a month before the earliest performance in Germany, and more than a year before the play was produced anywhere in Scandinavia. The only performances of "Emperor and Galilean" were given in 1883 at Leipzig and in 1888 at Berlin. The only performance of Ibsen's first play, "Catilina," that is noted was at Stockholm, December 3, 1881. The one serious fault to be found with Halvorsen's admirable bibliography is that it is presented in Danish, but this can be readily rectified.

—The decease in Japan of Dr. Stuart Eldredge, on November 16, at Yokohama, and of Mr. Edward Howard House in Tokio on December 18, deprives the American community of two notable men resident in Japan for more than thirty years. The one was an ornament to medical science, the other to letters and music. Both were deeply beloved by the Japanese, besides being the recipients of imperial favor in the form of decorations. On Dr. Eldredge was bestowed the third class of the Order of Merit, on Mr. House the second-class order of the Sacred Treasure. The latter, born in Boston in 1836, followed at first his father's occupation of bank-note engraver, but in the early fifties entered journalism and became a musical and dramatic critic in New York city. As correspondent, he reported the John Brown episode at Harper's Ferry, and later the war campaigns. Mr. House was fairly successful as a playwriter in collaboration with Dion Boucicault, but, since 1870, had spent most of his life in Japan, teaching English in the University and conducting the Tokio *Times* from 1877 to 1880. By his vigorous writing, he was influential in rousing the public sentiment in America and Europe through which Japan ultimately gained her sovereign rights as a nation. His pamphlets on the Kagoshima and Shimonoseki affairs were especially illuminating. Though crippled by gout for more than twenty years, he contributed steadily to the magazines. He accompanied the Japanese army, under Gen. Saigo, to Formosa in 1874, and wrote a full account of that expedition which powerfully affected modern history in the Far East. 'Yone Santo, a Tale of Japan,' and 'Japanese Episodes,' touch the lighter side of native life. His latest and greatest musical triumph (he held the degree of Mus. Doc. from Oxford) was the organization of an Imperial Court orchestra of Japanese young men, which, in 1900-1901, gave creditable performances, the first of the sort in Japan.

LANCIANI'S OLD ROME.

New Tales of Old Rome. By Rodolfo Lanciani. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

It is a matter of great importance for an archæologist to consider how freely he may give rein to his imagination, particularly when sentiment enters largely into his disposition and is exaggerated by circumstances of birth and environment. Lanciani is one of the great students of Roman classical antiquity. Possessed of broad knowledge of his subject, with a mind keen to the possibilities of every discovery, no matter how apparently insignificant, with an imagination ready to supply all the missing links, and with a sentiment fired by a love for the imperial city, our author has written upon a subject musty with the dust of ages a number of books which have a wondrous charm. Nevertheless, these same books give the reader a sense of insecurity, and inspire a fear lest the fair structure may have been founded and framed by the imagination of the enthusiastic scholar. The latest is no exception in this respect. In a beautiful volume of three hundred and thirty-six pages, entitled 'New Tales of Old Rome,' the author has brought together eight essays upon subjects which are related only in so far as they have to do with Rome. Two are concerned with the recent discoveries in the Forum and along the Sacra Via, one treats of the grove and inscriptions of the Arval Brotherhood, another considers the mystery surrounding the Grave of St. Paul, the fifth is entitled "Strange Superstitions in Rome." The last three relate interesting details as to the memorials of the Jews, the English, and the Scotch which are found in Rome.

Naturally we turn with special interest to the essay describing the recent discoveries in the Forum which have stirred the curiosity of the entire world, and have turned the eyes of students and laymen to the little area, near the arch of Septimius Severus, which was the Comitium of ancient Rome. To Professor Lanciani the famous but now generally discredited *lapis niger* indicates the tomb of Romulus, the founder of the city. The black stones may not be the identical slabs set up in the Comitium in the time of the kings, and may have been placed by Diocletian, but they mark the tomb of Romulus; and the sub-structure, with its *fossa* and oblong pedestals for the lions, and the conical-shaped pillar and pyramidal stone engraved with archaic letters standing near by, form a "venerable monument raised in honor of the founder of the city not long after his death." The mutilation which they show is "the palpable speaking evidence of the storming and sacking of Rome by the Gauls in 390 B. C." The pillar is only another evidence that this is the tomb of Romulus, for it resembles the "naval pillar of Duilius," and that of Numidian marble inscribed *parenti patriae* in honor of Cæsar. Then the inscribed stele, "still standing after twenty-five centuries in the identical spot where one of the kings set it up," escaped the destruction of the Gaulish fire of 390 B. C. "It contains a pontifical law specifying the ritual of certain public sacrifices, and it appears as if Livy must have had this stele before his eyes, or fresh in his memory, when he wrote the well-known passage in the twentieth chapter of Book I." The interpretation of the inscription, as given by Professor Ceci and published in the *Notizie degli Scavi* some months ago, is put in English form by the author.

Now all this forms a most delightful story, and we only wish we could say it were all true, but it is mostly pure assumption, and is built on the following remarkable facts. On the site of the old Comitium in the Roman Forum there have recently been discovered, below the recognized level of the imperial period, slabs of black marble, covering what is apparently a shrine, the purpose of which is unknown. All that can be safely said is, that Maxentius probably built this monument in honor of his son Romulus, being desirous of recalling the founder of the city and associating him with his son of the same name. The most important object discovered is the stele, upon which is inscribed what is undoubtedly the oldest Latin inscription in existence. There is nothing,

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however, about the stone to prove that it was set up in the time of the kings. The archaic letters are similar in form to the Greek alphabet on the Formello vase, at the date of which the Romans were borrowing that alphabet for their own written language. Of the inscription not more than half a dozen words can be recognized, and we can only say that the language refers in some way to the *rex sacrificulus*, who presided in the *comitia calata* for the making of wills. Professor Ceci's interpretation is an invention, and, although ingenious, does not deserve recognition in a work of any authority. In stating that the Duenos bowl was the oldest Latin inscription before the discovery of the stele, Professor Lanciani has overlooked the Fibula Prænestina. The Prænestine brooch has an inscription in retrograde order, the letters of which closely resemble those on the stele, and there is the same three-pointed form of punctuation. Both inscriptions date in the same period, perhaps in the seventh or sixth century B. C.

It is very probable that the Latin people obtained their alphabet from the Chalcidian colony of Cumæ, and our author should not have said that this theory had been abandoned, even though it enabled him to introduce the fanciful derivation of *cærimonium*. The inscription on the stele shows the alternating direct and retrograde order styled "boustrophedon." This combined order is the medium of change from the retrograde to the direct, and, since the discovery of the Fibula Prænestina with its retrograde form, has been thought to have been used by the Latins, though no evidence has been discovered before this time. The Etruscans, Umbrians, and Oscans did not use the alternating order inasmuch as they always wrote from right to left.

Professor Lanciani, when speaking of the work of Maxentius in the Forum, makes the suggestion that the newly discovered pedestal upon which was engraved the inscription, "To Mars the invincible father and to the founders of his eternal city," once supported the famous bronze wolf which has been popularly identified with the statue struck by lightning in B. C. 64, since the right hind leg shows an injury of some kind. The latter part of this chapter treats of the origin of Pasquino, upon whose statue were posted epigrams and mottoes, a custom giving rise to the word pasquinades. What this has to do with the new discoveries in the Forum it is impossible to say, for the "battered torso" dubbed Pasquino was discovered as early as the fifteenth century.

Under the heading "The New Discoveries on the Sacra Via," Professor Lanciani describes the Fasti which were placed on the walls of the Regia. When speaking of the Atrium of Vesta, he contradicts, though with regret, the theory that the mutilated statue of a Vestal found three feet below the floor of the Atrium was buried thus, to complete the disgrace of the priestess, whose name had been erased from a pedestal perhaps because she became a Christian. Nevertheless, he thinks that this proselyte was the Claudia named by Prudentius, since the name began with a C, which is all that remains of the inscription.

Suetonius tells us of the erection of the marble column in honor of Cæsar on the site of his funeral pyre. At its base was set an altar which, together with the pillar, was thrown down by Dolabella, son-in-law of Cicero. Fragments of the column still remain, and mark the spot where "the great man was incinerated." The description of the laying bare of the pavement of the Sacred Way and the *clivus* of "Commodus or Domitian" gives an opportunity for the introduction of the story of Simon the Magician and St. Peter. The chapter assigned to the Sacred Grove of the Arvales consists of thirty-eight pages, only fourteen of which treat of the subject. Under this title we find mention of the terminal gods, and the evolution of the shapeless boundary stones into the Hermæ of later times, and the discovery of pedestals of portrait busts, which bear the names of Bacchylides and Pindar. The chapter closes with a description of sacred groves, and in particular that of Annia Regilla, still surviving under the name "Bosco Sacro."

Professor Lanciani opens the chapter on "The Truth about the Grave of St. Paul" by a description of the Basilica Aemilia rebuilt by L. Paullus, a fact recorded by a recently found fragment *Paul(us) rest(ituit);* and he states clearly his belief that the columns of Phrygian marble of the Church of St. Paul on the road to Ostia were taken from the old Basilica, because it was levelled to the ground at the close of the fourth century, at the precise time when the Church was built. It was natural that materials from the Basilica Aemilia (Paulli) should be used in the Church of the Apostle of the same name because of the custom of the Christians of "placing pagan buildings under the care of saints whose names sounded more or less like those of the gods just expelled." De Rossi thinks both buildings stood at the same time, and refers to two dog-collars with inscriptions which mention the two buildings. The opinion of the author as to the mysterious grave is summed up in these words: "The grave of St. Paul has come down to us, most likely as left by Constantine the Great, enclosed in a metal case. The Saracens of 846 damaged the outside marble casing and the marble epitaph, but did not reach the grave. As to the nature of the grave itself, its shape, its aspect, its contents, I am afraid our curiosity will never be satisfied."

The strange superstitions that claim attention in the next chapter are those associated with the worship of Cybele, Mithras, and Artemis Taurica. Many sanctuaries for the worship of Mithras have been found and explored in Rome and vicinity, the best known of which is the cave of the Capitoline Hill, discovered in the sixteenth century, and named Lo Perso by reason of the Persian origin of Mithras, and which contained the famous bas-relief showing the *taurobolium*. The ancient ships now at the bottom of Lake Nemi Professor Lanciani believes to have been used for religious purposes, in connection with the sanctuary of Artemis Taurica on the shore. It has always been a mystery what the purpose of these vessels, two hundred feet long and sixty feet broad on a lake of a diameter of four thousand feet, might have been.

It is a matter of regret that the chapter on Jewish memorials in Rome opens with references whose authenticity the author himself questions. There is no reason to believe that the sarcophagus with labels incribed in the twelfth century really contained the bones of the Maccabees who came to Rome in the second century B. C., nor can we believe that the *princeps libertinorum* of Pompeii was the "Rabbi of the local Pompeian synagogue." The Horti Lamiani mentioned because of Caligula's affront to the Jews are described in a most entertaining way. The Arch of Titus with its reliefs, the triumphal gate of the Circus Maximus celebrating the conquest of Judæa, and the Temple and Forum of Peace dedicated four years after the fall of Jerusalem, are the other memorials considered in this chapter.

The remainder of the book, dealing, as it does, with English and Scottish memorials, has to do with the mediæval period, for, with the exception of the remains of the Arch of Claudius, and some pearls and pigs of lead, there are no other memorials from Britain dating in the classical period. The tomb of the Saxon king Caedwalla, who died in Rome in 689, the Schola Saxonum (or Saxon quarter) dating from 727, the Hospice on the site of the barracks of the blue faction of charioteers, and the college built on the same site which entertained John Milton and Richard Crashaw, the residences of the English ambassadors of about the time of the Reformation, and finally the House of St. Gregory, from whose monastery St. Augustine started to preach the gospel in Britain, are the English memorials described.

The style of the author is most satisfactory in its clearness, and there is a marked absence of the obscure, professional form of statement. There is some evidence of carelessness, as when the Maffeian Fasti are classed as named from a place, whereas they are so designated in honor of the great scholar Maffei. The master of Varro was L. Aelius and not Lælius, and the letters in the Bibliotheca Pacis were those of Sinnius Capito and not of Asinnius Capito. Juvenal does not say that the Jews hung baskets on the trees. In the tenth century a mark by old English calculation equalled 100 pennies or denarii, and not 160, so that the families of Britain paying Peter's Pence numbered thirty, and not forty-eight, thousand. The illustrations are excellent and well chosen. Some have already appeared in the *Notizie degli Scavi*, particularly the aerial photographs, which, being distinct, are very useful.

RECENT POETRY.

The rapid increase of books of miscellaneous poetical selections, while valuable as supplying labor-saving machines, brings with it many disadvantages. The names of authors get misplaced; so do commas and semicolons. The copyist makes, unconsciously or consciously, slight alterations which the next transcriber multiplies, and it is only when some careful Dr. Rolfe comes along, after a century or so, that the original version is faithfully restored. One of the farther incidental evils is when a well-meaning editor, like Mr. John Burroughs, gives us 'Songs of Nature' (McClure), and intermingles through his citations English and American daisies, English and American corn, without so much as a hint that his poets describe different species. If the English language is to overspread the earth and to describe natural objects with equal

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freedom from Alaska to Australia, we shall ultimately have to bring geography into even the books of poetical selections, or else hopelessly bewilder our children. Even apart from this, Mr. Burroughs's citations are not always accurate; thus, he quotes "Winter Night's Tale" for "Winter's Tale" (p. 27), gives us verses by Mrs. Darmsteter instead of Darmesteter (p. 32), and makes Shakspere's angels sing to the young-eyed "cherubims" instead of "cherubins." He also does some things of which the poets themselves might complain, as in citing the original form of Shelley's "Pine-Forest," instead of the later form; in taking parts of poems without indicating that they are only parts; in dividing the lines in his own way or running together lines which the poet separated, as in Browning's "Home-Thoughts, from Abroad" and the like.

With these limitations the volume has much that is varied and interesting, even in the preface of Mr. Burroughs, were it only for the quality best described as modest arrogance which makes him use the first person singular ten times in the first fourteen lines, and which leads him to venture again upon ground where he has more than once erred in time past, namely, in underrating the variations of nature, and assuming that nothing is true unless he has observed it within his own particular bailiwick. This he does, for instance, when he objects to Lowell for making the male oriole assist in nest-building (p. vii), although he is criticising an observer quite as careful as himself, and one who has once or twice, in times past, proved to be right when Mr. Burroughs was wrong. It may be remembered that the latter once censured Lowell roundly for making dandelions and buttercups bloom together, when it turned out that the critic had never even seen the particular species of buttercup which the poet was describing.

A collection of more permanent value is the series of "Colonial Prose and Poetry," edited by William P. Trent and Benjamin W. Wells (Crowell), contained in three volumes chronologically arranged and entitled respectively 'The Transplanting of Culture,' 'The Beginnings of Americanism,' 'The Growth of the National Spirit,' ranging in all from 1607 to 1775. The selection and distribution of these extracts could scarcely be improved; the combination of the Virginia and New England elements produces a work far more varied and readable than might have been expected; and we miss but few well-known and classic passages, one of these being the protest of the Rev. John Higginson against those settlers who count religion as ten only and the whole world as thirteen. A more serious question is that involved in the modernizing of the spelling, a question on which there will always be two sides, even in books for popular use. In some passages of these volumes, poetry and prose may be said to be combined, as in the description by the Rev. Benjamin Coleman of his friendship with "the incomparable Philomela," otherwise Mrs. Elizabeth Singer of Agford, near Frome, who had a volume of poems then in print, being then about her twenty-fourth year; and whom he found "comely in body, lowly in dress, with a soul fair and bright as an angel." This lady described to him the way in which she and her sister wrote poetry together:

"My sister," said she, "was a year or two younger than I, and her affection as well as wit was quicker. I seemed, however, to myself to think more thoroughly. She desired ever to be with me, and I wanted to be more by myself. We often retired by consent, each to her chamber, to compose and then to compare what we wrote. She always exceeded me in the number of lines, but mine, I think, were more correct" (vol. iii., p. 81).

It is quite difficult to believe that all this happened in a Puritan household in the seventeenth century, but so it was. Mr. Coleman did not, it seems, marry his Philomel, but he nevertheless had a daughter who was also a poet and who wrote verses which were, in the words of our editors, "pathetically impossible."

Another extremely interesting work of selections is 'Flowers from Persian Poets,' edited by Nathan Haskell Dole and Belle M. Walker (Crowell). We understand the extracts given in this work to have been selected by Miss Walker, and only the introduction to have been furnished by Mr. Dole. The work certainly gives an attractive and varied exhibition of the Persian poets hitherto scattered through a variety of volumes. It is beautifully printed.

Another book that may come under the head of collections is 'Walt Whitman's Poetry; A Study and a Selection,' by Edmond Holmes (Lane). The choice of Whitman's poems, some thirty or forty, is the best we have ever seen, and the criticisms are among the best. Mr. Holmes says of Whitman what others have observed, from the English point of view, that "his audience, though small, is select. . . . Popular he certainly is not, and is not likely to become" (p. 51). No one has better described what he calls Whitman's "recitative" manner, saying:

"At its best it is singularly impressive. There are certain inexpressible feelings—large, stormy, dreamy feelings that can never quite come to the birth—which it expresses (if I may be allowed the paradox) with marvellous power and effect. For this particular purpose it has no rival. Indeed, after reading some of Whitman's inspired passages, I feel for the moment as if all forms of metrical verse were by comparison cold, tame, and formal. But there is no other medium of expression in which the transition from poetry to prose is so rapidly or so easily made. Sometimes we find ourselves in the middle of plain, inoffensive prose without quite knowing how we got there" (p. 49).

Mr. Holmes says admirably, to counterbalance this: "One of the advantages of artistic form in poetry is that it makes for reserve and self-control. The poet has to keep back part of what he feels; and this intensifies the effect of what he says" (p. 9). He elsewhere says of Whitman: "He is the last man in the world to consume his own smoke."

Mr. Richard Watson Gilder's thin little volume of 'Poems and Inscriptions' (The Century Co.) inevitably makes the impression of some thinness within. The verses seem somewhat perfunctory, and suggest the possibility that, among his variety of active interests, the undoubted poetic gift of this author may have been somewhat arrested. The little Whitmanesque prose poem of "The Night Pasture" has a pleasing touch, but cannot be called an entire success; while "A Letter from the Farm" lacks a redeeming wit. The "Inscriptions for the Pan-American Exposition" are compact and well expressed, but are they quite worth putting into book form? Even Mr. Stedman's 'Mater Coronata' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), recited at the Yale Bi-centenary, is open in a degree to the same criticism. The very form of the ode has perhaps had its day, and it will be remembered that, of Lowell's three attempts in that direction, only one was really successful.

We have before now expressed our confidence in the poetic quality of Miss Josephine Preston Peabody as seen in her 'Wayfarers,' and still more in her 'Fortune and Men's Eyes,' when compared with the somewhat monotonous and tame volumes of verse which crowd the critic's table. They seem to show a difference of kind rather than of degree—an author evincing not merely talent, but genius. She has now had the farther daring to essay the drama, and there is certainly a continuance of promise. To take Marlowe himself bodily out of his own poems and set him elsewhere is surely no slight undertaking, and yet this is what she has done in her new volume, 'Marlowe' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Its merit has been at once recognized by the critics, but what they do not seem to recognize is the profounder aspect of the book. They perceive the fresh grace of the lyrics interspersed, like this song (p. 124):

Summer-moon, Summer-moon,
  Bless thy golden face.
Come above the downs, now;
  Do the garden grace.
While we are thy care to keep,
Bless the field, bless the sheep;
  Shine on our sleep.

While the nightingales do sing,
  Come, bonny guest.
Thy foot-fall is a silver thing,
  West—west.
Morning goes and afternoon;
Summer will be going soon.
  Ay, Summer-moon!

The critics skim off the love-story from the surface, as if that were all, whereas the author herself skilfully assigns to it a subordinate place. The following lines tell us what the humble heroine was to Marlowe—an influence wholly sweet and good, so far as it went, but by no means potent enough to remould that world-weary life (p. 44):

Lodge.

And yet I could have sworn
Your eyes took interest in the little saint
We saw to-day.

Marlowe.

The little country shrine?
Why, so they did. And, therefore, she was made.
'T is only she will look with pitying gaze
On me in gorgeous torment. Snowflake pity,
Destined to melt and lose itself in fire,
Or ever it can cool my tongue! Ay, Tom,
I owe the Faith more tribute than I pay,
For its apt figures. Con thy Bible, Tom.
I'm glad they chanced here. I shall think, sometimes,
Just of her face: the little Quietude,
Standing in shelter, quite immovable,—
And reach my hand up for a tear, a drop
Of holy water from those hands of hers.
She fills the only need was left to me;
And sooth to say, I never thought of it
Before I saw her.

She, nevertheless, passes out of his life, while he faces his unfinished problem of existence, and dies. Here the young author shows the rare power of making her drama end at a climax, which she reaches in the final monosyllable of the play. This last touch is, indeed, so fine that only a great actor could do it justice; and in this respect, as in others, the reader longs to see it put upon the boards and tested behind the footlights, where so many mediocre things are just now finding their way.

Turning to new poetry of British origin, we find that Mr. John Lane, in most re-

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spects an admirable publisher, becomes more and more tantalizing in the smallness of his books. Mrs. Alice Meynell's 'Later Poems' includes but thirty-seven pages. Nothing in this volume perhaps equals that "Letter from a Girl to her Own Old Age," which Ruskin called "perfectly heavenly," but the book is marked by that high-minded intensity which always belongs to its author, at least in verse—for her prose is more unequal. The following lines convey a vivid impression of an object which few Americans have perhaps noticed (p. 26):

NOVEMBER BLUE.

The colour of the electric lights has a strange effect in giving a complementary tint to the air in the early evening.—ESSAY ON LONDON.

O, heavenly colour! London town
Has blurred it from her skies;
And hooded in an earthly brown,
Unheaven'd the city lies.
No longer standard-like this hue
Above the broad road flies;
Nor does the narrow street the blue
Wear, slender pennon-wise.

But when the gold and silver lamps
Colour the London dew,
And, misted by the winter damps,
The shops shine bright anew—
Blue comes to earth, it walks the street,
It dyes the wide air through;
A mimic sky about their feet,
The throng go crowned with blue.

It is the misfortune of Mr. Henley to write during two-thirds of the time on the heights of heaven and love, and the other third in the depths of what he himself calls "the grizzly colonies of the grave." Hence his readers are alternately adoring and despairing. Take, for instance, this as the low-water mark in his 'Hawthorne and Lavender, with Other Verses' (Harpers) (p. lxiv):

Silence, loneliness, darkness—
These, and of these my fill,
While God in the rush of the Maytide
Without is working His will.

Without are the wind and the wall-flowers,
The leaves and the nests and the rain,
And in all of them God is making
His beautiful purpose plain.

But I wait in a horror of strangeness—
A tool on His workshop floor,
Worn to the butt, and banished
His hand forevermore.

Now turn to this (p. xliii):

A world of leafage murmurous and a-twinkle;
The green, delicious plenitude of June;
Love and laughter and song
The blue day long
Going to the same glad, golden tune—
The same glad tune!

Clouds on the dim, delighting skies a-sprinkle;
Poplars black in the wake of a setting moon;
Love and languor and sleep
And the star-sown deep
Going to the same good, golden tune—
The same good tune!

It is to be noticed, however, that, through all this wide range of variation, Mr. Henley's loyal love of wife and home and children remains a constant quantity, so that his books of poetry, at least, yield on the whole more of pleasure than of pain.

The same thing can hardly be said of Thomas Hardy, who, with increasing power of execution, shows an ever-growing tendency both toward the gloomy and toward the coarse, so that, even in his verses, he has to designate by simple dashes words not to be used in good society. It is impossible to regard this as a healthy or wholesome development. It is simply Whitman's "heroic nudity" and the violation of that reserve which higher natures feel. On the other hand, it accompanies at times a habit of vigorous expression which may reach some strong effects, if at too high a cost. If sheer strength is the only object, why was man created, and why were not the lion and the elephant enough? All this comes readily to the mind in reading Mr. Hardy's 'Poems of the Past and the Present' (Harpers). For mere thought and imagination, it is to be noticed that his poems of travel show a healthier tone than those written in England, and, perhaps, even a greater vigor of thought, especially those written at Rome and at Zermatt. We quote, for instance, stanzas written at the pyramid of Cestius, near the graves of Shelley and Keats, in 1887 (p. 53):

Who, then, was Cestius,
And what is he to me?—
Amid thick thoughts and memories multitudinous
One thought alone brings he.

I can recall no word
Of anything he did;
For me he is a man who died and was interred
To leave a pyramid

Whose purpose was exprest
Not with its first design,
Nor till, far down in Time, beside it found their rest
Two countrymen of mine.

Cestius in life, maybe,
Slew, breathed out threatening;
I know not. This I know: in death all silently
He does a kindlier thing,

In beckoning pilgrim feet
With marble finger high
To where, by shadowy wall and history-haunted street,
Those matchless singers lie. . . .

—Say, then, he lived and died
That stones which bear his name
Should mark, through Time, where two immortal Shades abide;
It is an ample fame.

There is at any rate a solid Saxon grapple of thought in all these poems by Mr. Hardy, even where the exercise of muscle is so robust and vigorous that one scarcely calls them poems. They are strangely contrasted in this respect with 'The Wind among the Reeds,' by W. B. Yeats (London: Mathews), to be classed with poems which, as some one has said, "seem little more than sighs that the silence should be broken." The same can hardly be said of 'Wagner's Nibelungen Ring done into English Verse' (Longmans) by Reginald Rankin, in which the touch is somewhat too heavy, so that the book is hard reading, and one rather wishes silence would return.

Historic Towns of the Western States. Edited by Lyman P. Powell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxxvi, 702. Illustrated.

Every man thinks his own geese swans, and every city thinks itself superior to its equals and equal to its superiors. It would have somewhat abated this delusion if the last official census of each town treated in 'Historic Towns' had stood at the head and front of its monograph as its "eternal blazon." These figures, largely lacking, have led to mystifications and tampering with comparative tests. Des Moines is declared to have "almost double the population of any other Iowa city," which double is 72,594. Its real census of 62,139 is suppressed. Omaha, silent as to her falling off more than 37,000 from a former census, hides her exact numbers and calls herself "the business centre of 175,000 people"; Cincinnati, with an unmentioned census of 325,902, reckons as "its belongings enough cities and villages across in Kentucky to swell her to the half-million mark." We are informed that "the population of Kansas City, in Missouri, is about 225,000." Had we been vouchsafed its census of 163,752, we should see that "about" excuses counting in more than 55,000 souls. It is added that "the region directly tributary is sure to press the city steadily forward till it ranks with Boston, Baltimore, and St. Louis." Chicago, deeming her 1,698,575 not worth printing, says she is "nearing the two million mark," and hints that predictions of "ten millions ultimately harbored there would not be wildly optimistic." Spokane claims to have grown within thirty years from three persons to fifty thousand; but its actual count of 36,848 nowhere appears. In Salt Lake City the official numbers 53,531 are given, but are also impeached in the same sentence by these words: "though the current city directory, compiled immediately after the census enumeration, gives names and addresses of nearly seventy thousand resident inhabitants." Here and elsewhere "almost" and "very nigh" save many a lie.

The beadroll of vague exaggerations, preferring the doubtful to the certain, is too long to go through. It betrays a scorn of accuracy which is vexatious even to those it cannot mislead, and forebodes further carelessness which is not wanting. The motto of the leading monograph, borrowed from Senator Daniel of Virginia, prints his name "Daniels." Carver's three years' travel is declared to have begun in 1776, yet "the Revolution came afterward." It is stated that Lewis and Clark went to the Columbia in 1803, and that Pike started up the Mississippi in 1804. River Raisin is printed River Basin. "Ad majoram gloriam" also appears. Misprints are too many to be accidental. The first page fixes the founding of Marietta "on the seventh of April, 1788," and its founding is elsewhere mentioned to have been "two months before that of Cincinnati," which is chronicled as two days after Christmas, the same year—a short year when two months stretched from spring to midwinter. Again, in regard to the Indian capture of Mackinac, we are told that "more than two thousand of the English lost their lives" (p. 338). But no historian sets down the total then slain as more than seventy soldiers and a trader or two. Three-score and ten was really an absurd overestimate—originating, perhaps, from the verbal similarity of seventeen and seventy. The official report of the British captain was: "The Indians killed one lieutenant and fifteen rank and file." These dwindling numbers bring to mind the eleven thousand virgins, all martyred with St. Ursula, whose bones some of us wept over in Cologne till we learned that the victims had been multiplied by a verbal misunderstanding; the name of a single maiden Undecimilla (Miss Eleventhousand), when written without an initial capital, being taken for a numeral.

The contributions to this picnic are unequal in everything except in length. One of the best is that on Madison, Wisconsin. Its points are well chosen, dwelt on in due proportion, with none of that boomer effusiveness which is elsewhere such a besetting sin. Critics, however, will cavil at calling pamphlets books, and, while not showing the census of 19,164, talking of Madison as "a community of 25,000"—thus effacing the line between urban and suburban limits.

The preëminences arrogated to several cities are in things doubtful or trivial. Cincinnati rejoices that she stands "nearest the centre of national population," as "always a strategic point," and as the "largest centre of playing-card manufacture." Detroit, pointing with pride to her

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"sunsets as unrivalled," provokes Shaksperians to ask: "Has Britain all the sun that shines?" She notes that more tonnage passes by her than enters and leaves London and Liverpool. Every Channel town may say as much. Cleveland shows a portrait of Artemus Ward, because he sojourned there two years. Like a circle in the water, she never ceases to enlarge herself; says that half our millions cluster round her within 700 miles, and that "Garfield, Hayes, and McKinley may be considered citizens of greater Cleveland"—whatever that may be. Her chapter is headed "The Pleasant City." Redolent of the Standard Oil Company, her favorite child, and aspiring to be more sooty and smoky than Pittsburgh, she persists in the iteration and reiteration, from first to last, of "so pleasant."

We have exposed certain peccadilloes in the book under review, not because it is bad, but because it is so good. It supplies a desideratum, and its faults are of easy correction. Type, paper, illustrations, and general make-up are not far from immaculate. The introduction binds up, so far as may be, the scattered ears into a sheaf. It is a scholarly exhibit of the natural causes, in mines, soil, rivers, lakes, as well as the moral, political, economic causes, of settlement and expansion. Its weakest monographs teach us much we are glad to know and cannot find elsewhere. Its nonsense is suited to popular nonsense, and will heighten its popularity. Its sphere will be wider than its own West, and it will win many to Westernize.

Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yale. Edited by James B. Reynolds, Samuel H. Fisher, Henry B. Wright, Committee of Publication. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

It was to be expected that a volume of this kind would be one of the monuments distinguishing Yale's bicentennial celebration. It was also to be expected that it would be a better book than the one actually in hand. Its main defect, which is more particularly characteristic of the first six chapters (all, together with the thirteenth, by one writer, H. B. Wright), is that the religious life of the college and university is regarded almost exclusively as a matter of successive religious revivals, as if these were not largely responsible for the periods of moral and spiritual indifference that intervened between the spasmodic ebullitions. Much ado is made about the influence of French infidelity as causing the condition which followed hard upon our Revolutionary war. But this condition was more obviously the result of a reaction from the excitement of the Great Awakening and the subsequent eruptions of Whitefield's fiery zeal.

The most interesting episode of the first chapter is that of the Rev. Timothy Cutler's secession to the Episcopal Church, with the sole tutor who, with him, then President or Rector, constituted the entire faculty. This was in 1722, soon after the removal of the college from Milford and Saybrook, where the students had been scattered abroad, to New Haven. President Cutler's first innovation consisted in saying, "And let all the people say, Amen," at the end of his commencement prayer. Dr. Woolsey wrote in 1850, "I suppose that greater alarm would scarcely be awakened now if the Theological Faculty of the college were to declare for the Church of Rome, avow their belief in transubstantiation, and pray to the Virgin Mary." The offenders were sharply cut off, and a hedge was built about the lawn to keep off all sheep which had not the Congregational mark, and that clearly defined. The next President, Elisha Williams, had been "sanctified by a severe fit of illness in 1720." This method of sanctification seems to have had great efficacy at that time, and further on. "It pleased God," says Jonathan Edwards, "to seize me with a pleurisy, in which he brought me well nigh to the grave, and shook me over the pit of Hell." His conversion immediately ensued. An epidemic of smallpox, in 1721, and of diphtheria, in 1735, and an earthquake, in 1727, are associated with Jonathan Edwards's local revival in 1734, as proximate causes of the Great Awakening of 1741.

A second chapter has for its subject that awakening and its effects. The view is wholly sympathetic. There is no suggestion of the arrogance of Whitefield's spiritual manners, nor of the excesses which filled the mind of Jonathan Edwards with profound anxiety, mixed with some distrust. Thomas Clap, then President of Yale, was at first extremely hostile to Whitefield, and there were expulsions of Brainerd and others from the college for adherence to the New Lights. It was certainly unkind of Brainerd to say that Tutor Whittlesey had no more grace than a chair when he had prayed an hour continuously in his best manner. President Clap had softened so much in 1754 that, when Whitefield called on him, he "treated him much like a gentleman," and later he became distinctly favorable to him. Nevertheless, until the Timothy Dwight revival of 1802, the decline of religious interest was strongly marked.

Mr. Wright seems not to know of any shades of belief between a high orthodoxy and "infidelity." A violent attempt is made to show that there were special reasons why only one student was present at a communion service in 1799 or 1800; but in comparison with the labor, the effect is small. An invidious comparison is made between an evangelized Yale in the first decades of the last century and Harvard, where the Unitarian movement prospered, having for its creed "Salvation must be obtained by culture"—an unaccredited quotation behind which Mr. Wright betakes himself for a division of responsibility. President Stiles is handled softly, considering the extent of his aberration from the stricter orthodoxy of his time and his friendly relations with Benjamin Franklin. It would not have been amiss, in speaking of the revival of 1831 and Bushnell's part in it, to have mentioned his 'Christian Nurture' as the most pungent criticism on revivalistic methods that they have received *ab intra*, as it were. A little further on we read, "William Lloyd Garrison's frenzied attack on the Church in 1837 was not without its effect. At Yale the firemen's riots and the killing of Tutor Dwight give evidence of a disturbing element in the early forties." Here the *post hoc* seems to be meant to suggest a *propter hoc*, but the conjunction may be accidental. One of the best chapters is that of the Rev. Timothy Dwight, "The College Pastorate." The Young Men's Christian Association also has a chapter, which it richly deserves in support of the opinion expressed in the introduction that all other agencies have done less for the Christian temper of the college as it is to-day than that association.

The Life of Lord Russell of Killowen. By R. Barry O'Brien of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. 405.

This bright, sketchy piece of work is likely to interest lawyers most of all. The author, an old friend and a great admirer of the late Chief Justice, tells the story of a remarkable career in a style calculated to entertain the reader, if it does not greatly instruct him. He accords to Russell the possession of extraordinary powers, but is content to state the fact rather than to illustrate it by examples.

Lord Russell died suddenly in August, 1900, at the age of sixty-eight, completely worn out by work kept up continuously at high pressure. He sat upon the bench for a period too brief to discover whether his fame as a consummate cross-examiner and a great winner of verdicts was to be surpassed by his accomplishments as a judge. That Sir Charles Russell was a wonderfully successful lawyer is universally conceded. Of Irish birth and a stanch Catholic, Russell stood up for Ireland wherever he had opportunity. Starting as a solicitor at Belfast, in 1854, he determined, alone and friendless, to try his fortune in London. He was called to the English bar in 1859. Intensely devoted to his profession, he by rapid strides advanced to be a leader on the Northern Circuit. He "took silk" in 1872. He appeared in great causes. Of course, he entered Parliament, and as a Liberal evinced conspicuous ability in one or two speeches; but he reserved his strength for contests at the bar. The steady growth in distinction that rewarded Sir Charles Russell's industry made his name well known in America. His masterly exposure of Pigott before the Parnell Commission earned for him unstinted praise. He was of counsel in the Bering Sea arbitration, and later, when Chief Justice, he sat as an arbitrator in the Venezuela affair. By advice of Gladstone he became Attorney-General, in 1886. Entering the House of Lords in May, 1894, he was almost immediately afterward, upon the death of Lord Coleridge, made Lord Chief Justice of England. In 1896 Lord Russell visited the United States for a second time, and delivered at Saratoga the annual address before the American Bar Association, which added to his already high reputation here.

Material for a successful biography is not usually rich in the case of a great lawyer or of a great judge. The life of such a man lacks stirring events. A clever writer, however, can make an interesting presentation if he has a clear insight into the character of his subject, together with the art of pleasing delineation. Mr. Barry O'Brien is in entire sympathy with his task, but the art in question he is not master of. We gather that Sir Charles was a man of imposing personal appearance. Our author expresses the fact in such form as this: "In truth he was more than a great orator; he was a great personality" (p. 95). "He was always big; that was his great characteristic" (p. 97). "In addressing the jury, as in cross-exam-

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ining the witnesses, it was Russell's personality that really told" (p. 102). "On the turf, as everywhere, his personality was felt" (p. 348). In a like abrupt manner we are told of a certain prejudice that Sir Charles displayed: "Russell hated fur coats as much as he hated pretence and pomposity" (p. 107); "Russell could not bear Astrachan coats" (p. 190). The following burst of admiration, we are free to say, exceeds anything to be found in Lord Campbell's Lives. It appears in a tribute from a barrister: " 'Ordinarily,' says a shrewd observer, 'the judge dominates the jury, the counsel, the public—he is the central figure of the piece. But when Russell is there the judge isn't in it. Russell dominates every one' " (p. 103).

As the reader may surmise from the tone of these extracts, there is a lack of dignity in the author's treatment of the subject. For this shortcoming Russell has to suffer. Mr. O'Brien does not touch the springs of our affection in behalf of his friend, but whether the defect lie in the subject or in the biographer himself it may not be worth our while further to inquire.

Because of a certain freedom of treatment and a liberal sprinkling of anecdote the book is rather agreeable reading, but it is not of much value viewed as literature. The keenest estimates of Russell are contributed by others. Hoey remarks: "Russell does not leave many corners of your mind unsearched" (p. 224); while Mr. Jelf, in a very interesting article, says of him: "His chief fault was a kind of intolerance of stupidity, prolixity, or inaccuracy, which led him at times unconsciously to do injustice both to counsel and witnesses. He seemed unable to make allowance for the inferior mental capacity of those with whom he had to deal" (p. 329).

The Roman Theocracy and the Republic: 1846-1849. By R. M. Johnston. Macmillan Co. 1901.

Mr. R. M. Johnston, a young American scholar educated and living in Europe, has written a very readable book on the Italian situation during the first three years of the pontificate of Pius IX. As the title suggests, the chief interest centres around the conflict between the theocratic and the democratic elements in Rome itself; but, in order to make this clear, the author gives us in outline the history of the exceedingly complicated negotiations and the widely divergent interests that were, in their way, both causes and consequences of the central struggle. The policy of the man Pius, the interests of the young democracy of France, the ardent strivings of the apostles of Italian liberty at any cost, the reactionary forces of Austria and Naples, the ambitions of Savoy, the furious passions of the secret societies, Jesuit, Carbonari, Sanfedists, and all the rest—these form the material out of which the historian has to weave his narrative. To give a place to them all without a wearisome mass of detail, to show their interworking without confusion, is a problem which Mr. Johnston has solved with unusual success. He has had access to good sources, and has used them with an evident desire to be fair. It is not easy to determine at the close whether he is Catholic or Protestant, so clearly does he sympathize with whatever is sincere and forward-looking on either side. Yet it would not be true to say that his presentation is colorless. The portrayal of Pius IX., for instance, is plainly touched with great feeling for the good intention with which this Pope began, and for the immense difficulties he had to meet. It is only another contribution to the mass of evidence that the functions of a theocratic ruler and the head of a democratic state are simply irreconcilable. The excellent pope must necessarily prove a thoroughly useless ruler.

Equally fair is the judgment of Mazzini, which appears in Mr. Johnston's references to his part in the Roman conflict. A hopeless idealist, seeing but one great object and regarding all others as mere contributors to this, Mazzini was inevitably out of his place in the midst of the Roman crisis. Yet, as the story of this Roman episode progresses, one is led to feel that it was, after all, only an episode in the larger conflict out of which a united Italy, heir to all the problems and all the weaknesses of her pathetic past, was to arise.

Mr. Johnston's volume is enriched by a bibliography of some twenty-five pages, and several useful documentary illustrations.

The True History of Captain John Smith. By Katherine Pearson Woods. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

The life and adventures of the redoubtable Captain John Smith have of late years been the subject of somewhat fierce contention, which, oddly enough, turns less upon the important things which he unquestionably did, than upon those which it is of no consequence whether he ever did or not. It is really of very little matter whether he was ever thrown overboard in a storm at sea and swam to shore; whether he was or was not a slave in "Cambia" and escaped by knocking out his master's brains; or whether he decapitated three Turks with one sword, or one Turk with three swords. It is true that "the lady Charatza Tragabigzanda," who cast upon her captive an eye of favor, suggests a number of old romances, as her name suggests that of "the Princess Micomicona"; but such things have happened before; and as for her name, latter-day Greek spelt by Smith according to the light of nature might account for more than this. These matters do not affect the course of history, which is here concerned only with the undisputed fact that, whatever his perils and sufferings were, he survived them and lived to plant the colony of Virginia.

The historical part of Smith's career is told by Miss Woods in a sprightly and agreeable way, which brings Smith very clearly before us. Few men have had more difficulties to contend with, and few have contended with them more valiantly. That he had a genius for colonization and exploration, the veriest skeptic cannot deny; but to the present writer his map of the Chesapeake Bay and its shores is a greater marvel than the decollation of any number of Turks.

The book is handsomely illustrated. The old maps of Southern Russia are interesting, and, we believe, are reproduced here for the first time. That of part of Transylvania (promised in the preface) does not appear. The "Rolfe" portrait of Pocahontas is, no doubt, genuine; but as for the "Sully" portrait, credulity itself must reject it. Apart from the utter incompatibility of the features, no such dress could have been worn in the first quarter of the seventeenth century either in London or at Werowocomico. The blazon of Smith's coat-of-arms is taken from Arber; but it contradicts not only the rules of heraldry, but the description in the text. Thus, in the first quarter, instead of "vert, a chevron gules," we have here argent, a chevron party per pale, or and azure. In the second quarter, for a field azure, we have a field argent; and in the third instead of argent, a bend azure, we have or, a bend engrailed argent!

History of Intellectual Development on the Lines of Modern Evolution. By John Beattie Crozier. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

When we bade a hopeful *revoir* to Mr. Crozier's History at the end of its first volume, Christianity was just thoroughly established; but, the second-projected volume having been skipped, we are now surprised with a third, devoted, half to the nineteenth century and half to the twentieth. We are very sorry that failing eyesight was the cause of this change of plan, as we suppose it also was of there being no history, but only disquisition, in the third volume. But we are heartily glad to meet Mr. Crozier again on any terms, for he always has something to say which were well worth reading, even if it were not set forth in a style which would make almost any matter pleasurable—a style which this iron age is not all accustomed to. What he now gives is the application of what we should have learned in the second volume to the politics of England, France, and America of to-day. He lays down four "rules of practical statesmanship" as the lessons which we should have learned from the unwritten volume, and then proceeds to apply them modestly, as mere exemplifications of their meanings, to the condition of the three countries named. The rules are as follows: First, consider the genius of your nation. Don't try to make a lap-dog of a horse; but limit yourself to such excellences as your stock can vitally assimilate. Second, make for the ideal in a steady march; but do not leap to it. Third, break down any barriers which may prevent one caste from being recruited from another. Fourth, restrict your aim to improving the material and social condition of your country; and do not attempt to change the character of your people.

When he comes to deal with the United States, Mr. Crozier finds the government so perfect that no room is left for other than minor suggestions:

"For," says he, "if we consider it, there is no one of the great objects for which government exists that has not for the last hundred years been abundantly provided for and safeguarded by the Federal Constitution—life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, security of person and property, freedom of religious opinion and worship, and, above all, an open arena, with equal rights, equal opportunities, and equal access to positions of honor and trust for all—and that, too, in a degree unknown elsewhere in the world, with the exception, perhaps, of certain colonies still attached to the British crown."

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at every remark that a foreigner may make upon our politics; and we are a little amused at Mr. Crozier's imagining that the Federal Senate is much freer from evil influences than the House. The best of his hints is, that a great part of the business of House committees, being of the nature of inquiry into facts, ought to be conducted somewhat according to the rules of a court, evidence being heard in public. He also suggests that private bills and other exceptional legislation ought to be discussed in a large and public committee before going to the special committee.

Mr. Crozier is very much opposed to abstractions in politics (such as equality and the like) being considered as ends. He is willing to grant that they may be commendable means. But an end, in his view, must be something strictly concrete and free from all generalization—at least in politics. Some will think that that opinion affords an accurate gauge of Mr. Crozier's philosophical calibre. Anybody whom his former books reminded of 'Typical Developments' will be capable of smiling at parts of this; but it must be acknowledged that it abounds in suggestions, as we have said, and the ornate and almost poetical style would render far less solid matter agreeable reading.

The Meaning of the Good: A Dialogue. By G. Lowes Dickinson, Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. 1901.

With certain notable exceptions, the deeply thoughtful philosophical books have not been popular. The philosopher ordinarily claims the scholar's exemption from solicitude for the unscholarly public. Since the common man is not under the necessity of being a biologist, or a philologian, or an archæologist, the mutual reserve of the scholar and the public is congenial to each. But the case of the philosopher is anomalous, because everybody must be a philosopher. There are good and bad archæologists, and men that are not archæologists at all; but all men are either good or bad philosophers. Hence, if the scholarly philosopher keeps himself from the people, they must turn to the nearest prophet, and he is very likely to be a quack. Contemporary writers, such as Caird, Paulsen, Royce, and James, have taken pains to offer their best thought in such form as makes it accessible to the general reading public; but the majority acknowledge no such duty. Mr. Lowes Dickinson has made a distinct contribution to popular philosophy, in that he has succeeded in expressing himself in the language of literature without ceasing to be a philosopher.

This book raises the central problems of ethics in the course of a very frank and untechnical discussion carried on by a group of men representing widely different occupations and interests. The ethical theories scholastically denominated as Hedonism, Intuitionism, Rationalism, and Idealism appear in this fictitious dialogue as the expression of different aspects of the common man's moral experience. The discussion is given a certain unity by the progressive effort to define the Ultimate Good, or that which lends value to life and is fit to be the highest object of endeavor. But it is finally concluded that there are many good things which are good because human experience finds them to be so, though they are capable of comparison in respect of such considerations as their permanence or their intrinsicality. Experience, being "a progressive discovery of the Good," finds in the highest forms of love the nearest approach to that final ideal.

The account is not altogether satisfactory in its outcome, because, though it admits the impossibility of naming a concrete good that shall be universal and ultimate, it does not provide for the formal definition of the Good in terms of self-realization. But, taken as a whole, the book is both inviting in its style and stimulating in its thoughtfulness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, V. de L. The Revolt and the Escape. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Agle, W. C. Eastern Peru and Bolivia. Seattle (Wash.): The Homer M. Hill Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Bell, Malcolm. Rembrandt van Rijn. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Cheney, J. V. Lyrics. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.
Cortina, R. D. (1) Narraciones, por Fernán Caballero; (2) Episodios. R. D. Cortina.
Everett-Green, E. True Stories of Girl Heroines. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Fabre, J. H. Insect Life. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hale, E. E. En Son Nom. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Hibbard, Grace. California Violets: A Book of Verse. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.
Holme, Charles. English Water Colour, Parts I. and II. (The "Studio" Library.) The International Studio. $1 each part.
Huntington, Annie O. Studies of Trees in Winter. Boston: Knight & Millet.
Jekyll, Gertrude. Lilies for English Gardens. (The "Country Life" Library.) Scribners. $2.50.
Kellor, Frances A. Experimental Sociology. Macmillan. $2.
Lake, Katharine. Memorials of William Charles Lake, Dean of Durham. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5.50.
Laurie, S. S. The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Macmillan, Hugh. The Corn of Heaven. Macmillan. $1.75.
Macmillan's Guides: (1) Palestine and Egypt; (2) Italy; (3) The Eastern Mediterranean; and (4) The Western Mediterranean. Macmillan.
Mayor, J. B. Chapters on English Metre. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
O'Conor, Manus. Old-Time Songs and Ballads of Ireland. The Popular Publishing Co. $2.
Perkins, F. M. Giotto. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Perrault, Charles. Tales of Passed Times. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Rannie, D. W. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne, Vol. V. Oxford (Eng.): Oxford Historical Society.
Ross, Ronald. Mosquito Brigades, and How to Organize Them. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
Rowntree, B. S. Poverty: A Study of Town Life. Macmillan. $3.50.
St. Cyres, Viscount. François de Fénelon. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Sayle, Charles. Meditations and Vows, Divine and Moral. By Joseph Hall. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Smith, W. W. A Course in First Year Latin. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Smith, B. W. "Uncle Boston's" Spicy Breezes. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Stoddard, C. W. In the Footprints of the Padres. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.50.
The Temple Bible: Exodus, Leviticus, Matthew, and Mark. London: J. M. Dent & Co. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thwaites, R. G. Jesuit Relations. Vols. lxxii., lxxiii., Index. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.
Tomlinson, E. T. In the Wyoming Valley. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Travers, M. W. The Experimental Study of Gases. Macmillan.
Vallery-Radot, R. The Life of Pasteur. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Waller, A. R. The Civilizing of the Matapanus. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 3s.
Watson, B. F. Addresses, Reviews, and Episodes Chiefly concerning the "Old Sixth" Massachusetts Regiment. Published by the Author.
Who's Who, 1902. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Willard, C. D. History of Los Angeles City. Los Angeles: Kingsley-Barnes & Neuner Company.

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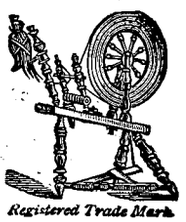

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